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Content-based Instruction in Further Education in China

by

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<u>ABSTRACT</u>

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Content-based instruction (CBI) is a pedagogical approach in which language classes are integrated with students' content subject(s). Although the term CBI remains new in China, the approach itself has great potential among Chinese students as EFL learners. It is the aim of this thesis to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI in further education in China, where the students learn English as a compulsory course alongside a content subject that relates closely to their future career.

Following a substantial literature review, a two-month CBI programme was conducted at Wuhan Law College (WLC). The programme serves as a case study for the research project, and action research characterizes my role in the programme. Interviews with many content and language teachers from higher and further education in China provided valuable information about course materials, teaching techniques, students' development and course assessment in CBI classes. This information contributed greatly to the success of the CBI programme in WLC. In addition, students and teachers kept diaries, and teachers wrote reports reflecting on their experience.

The programme ran for a short period (i.e. two months) and involved a limited number (i.e. 36) of students. However, a variety of research methods used in the programme (e.g. student diaries, teachers' reports, teacher diaries and interpersonal communications, etc.) provided a rich set of qualitative and quantitative data. As revealed by these data, the students developed their language abilities, content knowledge and cognitive skills during the CBI programme. Close co-operation between the language and the content teachers was critical to the programme. Team-teaching was an effective means of CBI teacher development. Due to the similarities between Chinese colleges, research findings in this thesis should provide valuable information and suggestions about the effective application of CBI in further education settings in China as an EFL context.

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Abbreviations

BICS	Basic interpersonal communication skills
CALLA	Cognitive academic language learning approach
CALP	Cognitive academic language proficiency
CBI	Content-based instruction
CBLI	Content-based language instruction
CLII	Content language integrated instruction
CLIL	Content language integrated learning
CLT	Communicative language teaching
EAP	English for academic purposes
EFL	English as a foreign language
EGAP	English for general academic purposes
EOP	English for occupational purposes
ESL	English as a second language
EGAP	English for general academic purposes
ESAP	English for specific academic purposes
ESP	English for specific purposes
FAM	Foreign affairs movement
FL	Foreign language
GPE	General purpose English
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LAC	Language across the curriculum
LBCI	Language-based content instruction
LSP	Language for specific purposes
MLAC	Modern language across the curriculum
NEST	Native English speaking teacher
NET	National English test

SLA	Second language acquisition
TBL	Task-based learning
WLC	Wuhan Law College

Introduction

It is probably the case in a very large number of language classrooms throughout the world that students' biggest wish is to be able to speak the target language as fluently (and maybe accurately) as its native speakers. This has happened to me during my nine years of teaching English at Wuhan Law College (WLC) in China. The pattern was broken one day when I asked my students whether they would like to be a fluent English speaker or a competent user of the language in the legal field. The latter was preferred by most WLC students. A question is thus raised: what kind of English should we teach in language classes at WLC? To be more specific, should we teach them the English for general communication or the English for the legal profession? Furthermore, will the students be automatically motivated if they are taught what they want to learn?

English is a foreign language in China. Very few college students learn English for the purposes of studying, living or working in English speaking countries. However, most students have realised the significance of English as an international language for global communication, in which China plays a big role. Here comes another question: For what purposes do we teach English in further education in China? Should we teach English as a foreign language or as a second language?

Most language classes in Chinese colleges are presented by Chinese teachers as non-native English speakers. The traditional grammar-translation approach is widely used in these language classes with basic interpersonal L2 communication as the pedagogical objective. To a certain extent, traditional language classes are effective in introducing fragments of language rules and uses. However, the students' interpersonal L2 communicative skills are far from native-like. For example, they can understand 'what are you doing' but do not have a clue about 'what are you up

to'. Moreover, as a non-native speaker, the language teacher is not always able to tell whether an expression is native-like or non native-like. Thus a third question comes into play: How do we teach English in Chinese colleges?

Background

Content-based instruction (CBI) has been practised as a new approach in China since the 1980s (Brinton *et al.*, 1989: 77). Language centres were established as joint endeavours of the University of California, Los Angeles and three Chinese universities in Beijing and Guangzhou. The CBI programmes in these centres were considered by Brinton, *et al.* (1989: 83) as unpromising: The foreign experts complained about their heavy workload while the domestic lecturers were not impressed by their low rates of pay. Unfairly shared workload between the teachers may affect the teaching efficiency and therefore the effectiveness of a pedagogical approach. However, it is surely not the only factor to judge the appropriateness of the approach. The students' say should never be overlooked.

The CBI approach has been applied in some primary and secondary schools in China since the mid-1990s. English is used to teach regular school subjects such as mathematics, biology and computer science. According to Hu (2002: 34-35), the results of these CBI programmes are encouraging. However, as he continues, English-medium instruction is not needed in basic education since all the subject courses can be accessed through the L1. Moreover, the lack of suitable teaching materials and qualified teachers makes the implementation of CBI rather problematic and unrealistic. Hu's (2002) argument reveals two pedagogical issues: what is needed by the students may not always be desirable for the teacher and vice versa. Secondly, considering the students' background and learning experience, CBI can be used as a means of language teaching and/or access to content knowledge.

In 2001, an official announcement of English-medium subject matter instruction was

made by the Ministry of Education in China (document No. 4 of the Ministry of Education, China). According to the announcement, English-medium instruction should be conducted in mainstream higher education classrooms, especially in highly technical subjects, such as bio-technology, information technology, financial and legal fields. Since then, there has been an increasing popularity of CBI in higher education settings in China.

Not all the university CBI courses in China are effectively conducted, and a large-scale practice of CBI in primary and secondary schools may end up in failure (Hu, 2002: 35). However, all these CBI cases, successful and unsuccessful, have provided invaluable information for practising the approach in further education setting, which is a rarely touched-upon field in China.

About the thesis

Based on my English teaching experience in WLC and the development of CBI in secondary and tertiary education in China, my thesis focuses on the effectiveness of CBI in further education in China. The research is conducted in order to answer the following questions:

1. Is CBI an appropriate methodology for WLC as a further education college and, by extension, for other specialist further education/colleges in China?
2. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' EFL proficiency?
3. How and how much do CBI courses contribute to WLC students' content mastery?
4. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' cognitive skills?
5. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from content teachers in WLC?
6. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from other language teachers in WLC?

As the first step to tackle these questions, a literature review is conducted and reported on in chapter one of the thesis. The purpose is to attain a better understanding of CBI. In this chapter, the concept of CBI is studied from various perspectives including the definitions of CBI and its theoretical and pragmatic supports. A working definition of CBI is also proposed in this chapter. Due to the considerable overlap between CBI and EAP (English for academic purposes), a substantial part of chapter one is devoted to the discussion of the relationship between the two approaches. A review of the theoretical and practical origin of CBI is followed by the discussion of its advantages and potential challenges.

Based on Chinese educational culture, the history of CBI in China is introduced as the other focus of chapter one. The introduction helps one to understand that accommodation and justification have to be made for an effective application of CBI in various academic settings in the Chinese context.

Chapter two describes the methodology used for the research project. A case study of CBI in Wuhan Law College (WLC) is introduced as 'what I would do' for the research while action research characterizes 'how I did it'. A variety of methods are adopted including questionnaires, interviews, work diaries, participant observation, etc. to attain qualitative and quantitative data.

There are many types of case studies. According to McDonough and McDonough (2000), a case study can be based on a single subject (e.g. student, course or school) or on a group of subjects (e.g. teachers, students or schools). The former focuses on the intrinsic value of the study while the latter places more emphasis on the generalizability of the data collected from the study. Although the case study in my research is more likely to be intrinsic, similarities between colleges in China help to increase the generalizability of the research findings.

Since my research aims to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI in WLC and other further education setting in China, action research is the major characteristic of my project. The rationale is that a theoretical approach in education (i.e. CBI in this case) can only be understood, evaluated and developed through a series of reflective procedures. Similarly, case study, as the other approach to my project, enables me to appreciate various CBI models and relate them to my teaching practice in a specific setting (i.e. WLC in this case).

Chapter three provides a detailed illustration of how the above mentioned methods are used to obtain data and information for my research project. It can be viewed as a narrative account of the two-month CBI programme in WLC. The chapter describes the three stages of establishing an effective CBI model in WLC. During this process, I participate in the programme and modify the teaching procedures in the CBI classes as a CBI teacher, and I observe classroom activities and collect data for analysis as an action researcher.

Chapter four provides a thematic account of the field research and addresses the research questions directly. Unlike chapter three where the data are revealed in accordance with the process of the programme, chapter four aims to analyse these data from the perspective of the research questions. Therefore, 'student' and 'teacher' are the two key words in interpreting the data. Administrative issues are also tackled at the end of chapter four as a vital factor in a successful CBI programme.

The thesis is concluded with answers to the research questions. Outcomes of the CBI programme in WLC suggested that CBI is suitable for WLC students as well as those in other further education colleges. However, a CBI course can hardly be effective if it is applied in isolation from other approaches including grammar-translation, task-based and communicative language teaching.

In sum, it is the aim of my research project to re-conceptualize CBI against the

background of language approaches in general, and to investigate the values of CBI in further education in China in particular. This thesis concerns issues of *what, when,* and *how* in the CBI approach. *What* represents an issue regarding the concept of CBI and its relationships with other language teaching approaches. The issue of *when* clarifies at what stage in students' education CBI should be applied. It addresses the relationship between language learning and students' content and cognitive abilities. The issue of *how* tackles problems during the application of CBI in the local context of WLC. It is expected that the outcome of my research can provide some useful information about researching and practising the CBI approach in other further education settings in China.

Chapter 1   Literature Review

Introduction

Content-based instruction (CBI) has enjoyed increasing popularity since the 1980s. The term CBI has gained wide acceptance in education institutions in the United States. In the United Kingdom as well as other European countries, however, CLIL (Content Language Integrated Learning) seems more popular (Grenfell, 2002). Since most CBI courses take place in academic settings and aim at both language acquisition and academic success, the approach inevitably shares some common ground with English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as a subset of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Robinson, 1991). One of the aims of this chapter is to compare CBI with EAP and CLIL so as to achieve a better understanding of various forms of language and content integration.

Similar to ESP, the CBI approach distinguishes itself from traditional language teaching models by identifying language as a *means* to real-world purposes rather than an *end* of learning language for its own sake. In this thesis, real-world purposes refer to the CBI or EAP learners' academic achievement and/or professional success. Teaching language skills as means to research, study and communicate in the language may be the aim of most, if not all, EAP courses and some CBI courses. However, many CBI courses place more emphasis on knowledge and information in academic subject(s). Since the target language is used as the medium of classroom instruction, students are expected to learn the language as by-product of these CBI courses.

As another form of language and content integration in education, CLIL has received considerable popularity in European Union (EU) countries. Since CLIL courses in these countries are conducted for political, economical and cultural reasons, language

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is learned not only as a pragmatic skill (means) but also as educational subject (end). Apart from receiving content knowledge, the CLIL students are also expected to be bi- or multi-lingual as the result of CLIL courses.

Another aim of this chapter is to find the place of CBI in content and language integrated approaches by differentiating the approach from or linking it to some other language teaching approaches and methodologies. The attempt to achieve this aim is generated during my study of the concept of CBI. There are a number of books and articles about CBI. However, there seem to be different understandings of the concept. Different perceptions of CBI accordingly lead to a diversity of pedagogical approaches. A complex definition of CBI is provided by Stryker and Leaver (1997), who view CBI as a philosophical orientation, an instructional method, a pedagogical design, or a framework for the language teaching system as a whole (Stryker and Leaver, 1997: 5). Various definitions of CBI proposed by researchers and educators reveal a variety of perceptions on *language*, *content*, and *integration*, which are introduced in this chapter.

There has been limited practice of CBI in China. Some researchers (e.g. Hu, 2002: 30 and 35) argue that there is a 'lack of solid empirical research' in CBI and that the approach should be restricted to 'a small number of elite schools'. The CBI approach has been adopted in many Chinese universities. However, the teaching model tends to resemble L2 content courses, in which English is the only medium of content instruction. It is the third aim of this chapter to provide a historical review of CBI in China from the mid nineteenth century to the early twenty-first century.

The literature review in this thesis is intended to provide a solid theoretical background for empirical research in CBI. The literature review also indicates that there is very limited practice of CBI in further education in China, hence scarcely any basis for empirical research. Six questions concerning the effectiveness of CBI in further education colleges in China are raised from the literature review and to be

answered through the case study of a CBI programme in Wuhan Law College (WLC) in China:

1. Is CBI an appropriate methodology for WLC as a further education college and, by extension, for other specialist further education colleges in China?
2. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' EFL proficiency?
3. How and how much do CBI courses contribute to WLC students' content mastery?
4. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' cognitive skills?
5. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from content teachers in WLC?
6. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from other language teachers in WLC?

This chapter is composed of eight sections. Sections one to seven focus on the development of CBI as an approach to language learning, whereas the eighth section introduces some Chinese educational culture in general and CBI in China in particular. The study of the CBI literature helps to establish a clear understanding of CBI, while an introduction to language teaching in China as an EFL context provides better understanding about why and how CBI can be used to facilitate English language learning.

The first section of this chapter introduces a collection of various CBI definitions. Behind these definitions is the agreement that language is learned more effectively as a tool of subject matter study. The CBI approach features in the employment of subject content, authentic language use, and the focus on learners' real world needs. It is also in this chapter that the concept of CBI is contextualized in EFL (English as a foreign language) settings. The three main characteristics are introduced as criteria of CBI in the second section of this chapter, where the link and differences between CBI and EAP are also discussed.

Section three of this chapter focuses on the relationship between CBI and other content-language integrated teaching approaches and methodologies. These approaches and methodologies include L2 content instruction, bilingual education, grammar-translation and the task-based approach.

Following the introduction of the concept of CBI, the theoretical and pragmatic supports for the approach are discussed in the fourth and the fifth sections. Pedagogical practices in L1, L2 and FL instruction provide anecdotal models of CBI. Theories in second and foreign language teaching facilitate the establishment of CBI as an approach to autonomous and continuous learning: it fosters learner autonomy by explicit and implicit introduction of learning strategies; it encourages continuous learning by integrating language learning with the learners' study in the academic or professional domains. Although neither of these two characteristics is CBI-specific, the combination of them has rarely been emphasised in other pedagogical approaches.

Despite the increasing popularity of CBI, the effectiveness of this approach is still subject to further evaluation. In the sixth and the seventh sections of this chapter, the advantages and some challenging issues in the CBI approach are discussed.

Section eight focuses on CBI in China as an EFL context. The Chinese educational culture is introduced at the beginning of the section. Following the cultural introduction, we proceed to a historical review of CBI in China. The historical review aims to introduce the anecdotal CBI practice in the 1860s, as well as the participant reaction to the integrated instruction in the 1980s. English-medium instruction was officially encouraged by the Chinese government in 2001. This educational policy has been connected, and in most cases equated, to other forms of content and language integration such as ESP and bilingual courses. All these English language teaching models have received great popularity. However, the term CBI remains relatively new in education in China.

1.1 What is CBI?

Content-based instruction (CBI) has been generally understood as an integrative approach with dual focus on language skills and content mastery. However, a diversity of definitions of CBI has been proposed by researchers and educators from different aspects. Different perceptions of *language, content* and the balance between them in *integration* raise the diversity of the concept of CBI as a whole. The main purpose of this section is to provide a broad view of the definition of CBI, as well as the three conceptual issues concerning the definition.

1.1.1 Definitions of CBI from a diversity of aspects

Different aspects of language and content integration have been provided by language teaching researchers and practitioners with diverse theoretical perspectives and pragmatic experiences. Some (e.g. Mohan, 2001) insist that language instruction should be integrated with content subjects because they are mutually dependent. Some (e.g. Snow and Brinton, 1997) view the integrated approach as a new pedagogical wave, connecting language learning to its real-world use. Others (e.g. Stryker and Leaver, 1997) see the content-based instruction in rather complex perspectives which concern philosophy, methodology and pedagogy.

Although a good number of researchers have agreed that language and content teaching should be integrated, a clarified concept or framework of language and content integration is still under debate. The breadth of the three key terms, i.e. language, content and integration adds heat to the arguments.

1.1.1.1 A functional linguistic view of CBI

From a functional linguistic aspect, Mohan (1986) insists that language and content should be learned at the same time. This statement is based on his Knowledge

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Framework (see table 1.1), in which Mohan argues that any social activity is a combination of knowledge (theory) and action (practice).

Activity { Theory / Practice

Classification	Principles	Evaluation
Description	Sequence	Choice

Table 1.1 Knowledge Framework (Mohan, 1986)

As can be seen from table 1.1, theory is used to classify, guide and assess one's practice. These roles of theory are summarised by Mohan as classification, principles and evaluation. Practice reflects, realises and enriches one's theory framework. In Mohan's words, practice includes activities such as description, time sequence and choice. Activity is therefore a process empowered by the duality of theory and practice. For example, the practice of getting car insurance is composed of one's knowledge of car insurance (theory) and driving a car and having a car accident (practice). The process may not necessarily be initiated by learning the theory and will not be completed with the practice. In other words, activity is a reciprocal process driven by the interaction of theory and practice.

Applying the Knowledge Framework to language learning, Mohan sees language as a type of social activity within various discourse contexts. One can only learn the language code through contextualised content messages. During the process of language activity, one learns not only the language but also the content. The interrelationship between language and content is explicitly described as follows:

> if code is divorced from message, content is excluded; if form is divorced from function, there is no functional grammar; if language is divorced from discourse, there is no account of larger units of discourse, and so no account of the role of discourse abilities in academic reading and writing, for instance.

(Mohan, 2001: 112)

Viewing from a sociological aspect, Mohan (1986) argues that language learning is a process of activity supported by two inseparable elements: language rules as theory and language use as practice. The reciprocal process of language theory and language practice establishes and enriches one's language framework.

Being influenced by Mohan's argument about the inseparability of language and content, some researchers oversimplify the process of content and language learning. Kramsch (1993: 4), for example, claims that students acquire content as they receive the instruction in the new language forms. This argument neglects the impact of other social factors on content and language acquisition. In other words, language does not always provide the full access to content knowledge.

Mohan's Knowledge Framework emphasises the significance of language and content integration. However, as claimed by Mohan (2001), the Knowledge Framework is not a teaching methodology in itself and cannot be used as pedagogical guidance. The framework does not provide explicit support for CBI either, in which content is the basis of language instruction.

1.1.1.2   A pedagogical aspect of CBI

Based on Mohan's argument that language is an activity within social contexts, and therefore can only be acquired through contextualized practice, Brinton and her colleagues (e.g. 1989, 1997) claim that effective language instruction should be integrated with a particular content. They also provide a clarified concept of content. According to Brinton, *et al* (1989), in academic settings, content refers to regular subject matter that students are currently learning such as mathematics, geography, and history, etc. Since the content-area materials are used for language teaching purposes, CBI is defined as "the integration of particular content with language-teaching aims" (Brinton, *et al.* 1989: 2). In this sense, CBI advocated by

Brinton, *et al* is content-based *language* teaching, although students' academic needs are taken into account in the CBI curriculum.

Brinton *et al* (1989) list five rationales for CBI on the basis of pedagogical practice and research theories in second language acquisition:

1. Language learning should be related to the learner's eventual uses of the language;
2. Effective learning occurs when student motivation is increased by informational content involved in language classes;
3. Effective language teaching should link the learners' present language proficiency with previous learning experience, existing content knowledge and the academic environment;
4. Language teaching should be focused on contextualized use rather than sentence-level usage;
5. The process of understanding relevant content provides the learners with an opportunity to develop linguistic and cognitive skills.

The five rationales emphasise the pedagogical effect of the CBI approach. As pointed out by Williams (1995), the integrative approach provides a meaningful basis for language teaching and speeds up the process of L2 mainstream success. However, some sociolinguistic factors are overlooked in these rationales. First of all, in some EFL contexts like China, English as the target language neither has official status nor is frequently used for daily communication. Most EFL learners do not have eventual opportunity to use the language. Nor do they have linguistic demand for immediate content success. Secondly, the learners may not be motivated to learn the language which they do not see the practical value of. Thirdly, it might be ideal but impractical for a teacher to have full information of the learners' language and content learning experiences. Concerning the fourth rationale, contextualized use should be at the centre of language teaching; however, this does not necessarily diminish the

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significance of focusing on sentence-level usage. Sometimes, the language teacher may find explicit instruction on language rules necessary and effective. Finally, understanding the language input does not always lead to the acquisition of the language. Nor does it improve the learners' cognitive abilities. Other factors including teaching techniques, learning environment and educational culture, etc. also have impact on the learners' linguistic and cognitive development.

It is not my intention to deny the effectiveness of the CBI approach by questioning the five rationales. However, CBI teachers in EFL settings should be aware of the impact of social and educational culture on language learning, which is discussed later in this chapter. The discussion is supported by the data collected from a CBI case study in Wuhan Law College (see chapters three and four).

In educational practice, there are a number of types of CBI. Due to the different perceptions and applications of content, language and integration, the CBI umbrella can be even broader. Brinton *et al.*'s (1989) classification seems to be well known and frequently quoted. They identify three basic types of CBI: theme-based instruction, sheltered instruction and adjunct instruction.

Theme-based instruction is named as theme-based language instruction. In this approach, language activities are organized by a major theme or a series of themes related to non-linguistic areas. Language skills are the primary target of theme-based instruction. Allowing great flexibility of the range and difficulty of content topics, the theme-based approach is applied to learners at various levels of L2 proficiency.

Sheltered instruction is specified by Brinton *et al.* as sheltered content instruction. It is provided as a content course to L2 students. These students are sheltered from their peers who are native-speakers of the target language. The course is taught by the subject teacher and language used in the sheltered classes is normally modified and simplified for the sake of effective communication. In the sheltered classroom,

teachers use physical activities, visual aids, and the environment to teach important new words for concept development in mathematics, science, history, home economics and other subjects. The goal of the program is to mainstream the students gradually. Therefore, both content mastery and language development are expected of the students.

Adjunct instruction is identified as a paired model by Wesche (1993). In this CBI model, L2 students are enrolled with mainstream students in a content course, and are sheltered from them in a language course. The Language course aims at specialised discourse and academic skills in the content subject, while the content course instruction bears a certain degree of language sensitivity. Although language teachers and content instructors maintain priorities in their own field, they work as a team to help the students with their academic success.

Brinton *et al.*'s classification of CBI is identified as prescriptive and criticised for being theoretically problematic by Davison and Williams (2001: 57). As they claimed, "at the theoretical level, this categorisation has the problem of incorporating two different entities in the labels being proposed, and therefore leads to problems in classifying different types of practice". Adjunct and sheltered instruction are classified according to the form of the programme, whereas theme-based instruction refers to the content in the course. Meanwhile, sheltered and adjunct models seem irrelevant to an EFL setting where there are no native speakers of the target language.

1.1.1.3   CBI as subset of integrated language and content teaching

Brinton *et al.*'s (1989) term 'content-based (language) instruction' is rejected by Davison (1993, cited in Davison and Williams, 2001) since the term conflates a variety of integrative models with different emphases. Based on some further understandings of the complexity in language and content integration, Davison (1993, cited in Davison & Williams, 2001: 58-59) proposes a descriptive framework.

Curriculum Focus	Theoretical model/approach	Teaching materials	Curriculum function	Program type/student groupings	Teacher roles
Language teaching	Pre-communicative approaches	e.g. Learning English in Australia (CSC, 1976)	Language syllabus	ESL intensive or similar needs classes	Direct ESL instruction, no content influence
'Contextualised' language teaching	Early 'weak' communicative approaches	e.g. Cambridge course materials	Language syllabus with contextualisation		
	Situational approaches, e.g. Action Sequence approach (Corbel, 1986)	e.g. Using the System (Corbel, 1986)	Language syllabus with content dimension		
	Functional-notional approaches (e.g. Wilkins, 1976)	e.g. English in Focus (Allen and Widdowson, 1974)	Language syllabus loosely linked to content syllabus	(ESP/EAP oriented classes)	Direct ESL instruction
	Genre-based approaches, e.g. Genre Theory (Rothery, 1984; Martin, 1986; Christie, 1987; Derewianka, 1991)	e.g. ESP materials (Gallaghan & Knapp, 1989; Christie et al. 1992)	Units of work/'de facto' language syllabus built around content syllabus		
	Topic approaches, e.g. Topic approach (Gleland and Evans, 1984)	Teaching English through Topics (Gleland and Evans, 1984, 1985, 1988)	Units of work/'de facto' language syllabus presenting as content syllabus		(content teacher as resource)
'Simultaneous' integrated language and	Intuitive practices?			Mainstream class with some similar	Collaborative teaching and / or ESL

content teaching				needs ESL classes	support / team teaching
	Genre-based approaches, e.g. Genre Theory (Rothery, 1984; Martin, 1986; Christie, 1987; Derewianka, 1991)	e.g. Rothery & Stenglin, 1994; Love, 1996)	Partial language-based 'syllabus' embedded in content syllabus	Mainstream class or ESL adjunct / parallel classes	
	Activity-based approaches, e.g. CALLA (Chamot & O'Malley, 1992, 1994)		Language-based units of work in content syllabus	Mainstream class or ESL adjunct / parallel classes	
' Language - conscious' content teaching		e.g. Science Exercises (O'Toole, 1989)	Language-based adjunct units of work embedded in content syllabus	Mainstream class with ESL perspective or sheltered instruction	ESL teacher as resource
	'Language Across the Curriculum approaches, e.g. Barnes, 1976; Britton, 1979)	e.g. Marland, 1977	Language – conscious activities embedded in content syllabus	Mainstream class with language awareness	
Content teaching	'Immersion', e.g. natural learning (Cambourne, 1988) 'Submersion'		'Language - rich' content syllabus	Mainstream class	No ESL influence
			'language – poor' content syllabus	Mainstream class	

Table 1.2   Davison's (1993) descriptive framework of integrated language and content teaching

Similar to Brinton *et al.*'s classification, Davison's (1993) framework introduces approaches applied in an English-speaking environment (the USA), where the students are non-native speakers of English. As can be seen in table 1.2, this

framework clearly distinguishes different models of integration and provides fairly detailed information and suggestions on curriculum focuses, teaching materials and teacher roles, etc. By putting language and content in the same framework, Davison proposes a common ground for language and content teaching. Curricula in Davison's framework are either language- or content-based and indicate a continuum between language teaching and content teaching. As commented by Davison and Williams (2001), an important distinction of this framework is that

> language and content integration is seen as a cline ranging from 'contextualised' language teaching to 'language-conscious' content teaching. Curriculum focus is defined according to the varied significance, depth of treatment and internal coherence of the language and content elements of the curriculum.
>
> (Davison and Williams, 2001: 60)

Davison's framework broadens the CBI umbrella by pointing out that there is great flexibility in language-content integrative curricula. This framework seems to support the argument on the weaker and stronger forms of CBI (see figure 1.1 on page 24), which is introduced in the following section.

Three examples can be introduced to help one's understanding of Davison's framework as well as the weaker and stronger forms of CBI. Schleppegrell and her colleagues (2004) introduced a CBI course to a group of history students, who are also ESL learners, through a functional linguistic approach. The aim of the course is 'to develop academic language by focusing on the meaning-making potential of the historian's language choices' (Schleppegrell, *et al.*, 2004: 67). The focus here seems to be very much on language. With a concurrent focus on language and content, an aviation English course is delivered to the Chinese students at Civil Aviation University of China (Wang, 2007). The students in the course are expected to establish 'not only a good grasp of English skills, but also a conscious command of professional knowledge' (2007: 121). The rationale behind the course is that

'knowing a restricted "language" would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in a novel situation or in contexts outside the vocational environment' (Mackay and Mountford, 1978: 5, cited in Wang, 2007: 123-124). A third example is reported by a content teacher on the development of her ESL students in the mainstream (Rosenthal, 2000). With the effort for achievement in English-medium content courses, together with the effort they make in the totally unrelated English language classes, the ESL students 'graduate from college not only with an academic degree but also with bilingual proficiency' (2000: 87).

The argument of language and content continuum has been accepted by an increasing number of researchers and practitioners (e.g. Wesche & Skehan 2002). However, it lacks a theoretical support for the constitution of curriculum focus and the process of curriculum design. The resolution of this problem can be found in section 1.4: theoretical supports for CBI.

1.1.2 Towards a definition

Mohan (1986) views language and content integration as an example of his Knowledge Framework. Brinton and her colleagues classify three types of CBI as a new approach to language teaching. Davison (1993, cited in Davison and Williams, 2001) proposes a descriptive framework which provides a common language to talk about content and language teaching. They all see CBI or language and content integration from one particular aspect. Compared with their frameworks, the definition of CBI provided by Stryker and Leavers seems rather complex. They see CBI from the perspectives of philosophy, methodology and educational pedagogy.

According to Stryker and Leaver (1997:5), CBI is "at once a philosophical orientation", meaning that language does not make sense if it is not connected with or does not contain content; "a methodological system", emphasising the effectiveness and efficiency brought about by integration of language and content; "a

syllabus design for a single course", which can be illustrated by various CBI models such as adjunct teaching and sheltered instruction; "or a framework for an entire program of instruction", since CBI serves as a new concept in language education.

We have seen that CBI is viewed by different practitioners in many different ways. For the purpose of this study, though, a working definition of CBI needs to be clarified. This definition applies to the research programme as WLC introduced in chapter three. CBI is an approach in which the teaching is focused on a subject matter. The target language, i.e. English in the WLC case, is the main medium of instruction, while L1 is used to facilitate teaching and classroom communication. During the course, students are expected to develop their content-related target language competence and knowledge in the content area itself.

A general definition of CBI also needs to be given in order for a clear understanding of this thesis including the case study conducted for the research. This section is an attempt to define different forms of CBI in the continuum of language and content learning (see figure 1.1 on page 24).

1.1.2.1   Content-language integrated instruction (CLII) as the ideal form of CBI

CBI derives from the intertwining relationship between language, as a means to convey content meaning, and content, as information transferred through language. As claimed by Mohan (2001), there is no such thing as 'language in itself', nor is there 'a pure language in use'. On the one hand, content can be learned through language as a medium and from a linguistic perspective. In Halliday's (1978) words, learning is a linguistic process. On the other hand, language learning occurs, or at least starts, when the content meaning conveyed by the language is understood.

According to the original definition of CBI provided by Brinton, *et al.* (1989), the advantages of this approach lie in its pedagogical efficiency since the learners receive

'two for one'. That indicates that content-language integrated instruction (CLII) is the ideal form of a successful CBI programme. In CLII classes, students develop content knowledge and increase their language proficiency at the same time. This form of CBI resembles content and language integrated learning (CLIL), although CLII advocates view the integration from the teacher's aspect while CLIL places more emphasis on learning and the learner. The CLIL approach, which is quite popular in many European universities, was coined by David Marsh from the University of Jyväskylä in Finland (Tidblom, undated online resource). In the CLIL programme, students learn a content subject through a target language and learn the target language via studying the content subject.

1.1.2.2   Content-based language instruction (CBLI) as the weak form of CBI

In teaching reality, not all the CBI classes reveal an ideal balance between the language and the content. Some practitioners, who in most cases are language teachers, argue that language is the primary goal of the CBI approach (e.g. Snow, 1991 and Peterson, 1997, etc.). They define CBI as 'the integration of particular content with *language-teaching aims*' (Brinton, *et al.* 1989: 2, italics mine), and the teachers' primary job is to teach the language (Brinton & Holten, 2001: 250). This form of CBI can be categorized as CBLI (content-based language instruction). CBLI is the weak form of CBI since the approach is at the language extreme of the language and content learning continuum (see figure 1.1 on page 24).

Theme-based programmes (Brinton, *et al.*, 1987) are pedagogical examples of CBLI. In these programmes, the content subject is selected to meet the language teaching aims. In this sense, CBLI, as the weak form of CBI, resembles EAP courses due to the pedagogical focus on language. To be more exact, both CBLI and EAP aim to foster language skills via the study of content-area materials. However, they differ from each other to a certain extent. EAP, as a subset of ESP, shows more dependence on systematic need analysis, which involves discourse analysis of subject-area texts

and consultations with academic experts. In theme-based courses, however, the systematic analysis may not always be a prerequisite. Focusing on the general four language skills, topics in theme-based courses may be unrelated to one another, and the teachers select or adapt content materials according to the target levels of language skills (Brinton, *et al.*, 1987: 15). As summarized by Flowerdew and Peacock (2001: 181), "theme-based instruction focuses on developing overall academic skills and is not targeted at a particular discipline". EAP may be a weaker form of CBI, but certainly not the weakest compared with CBLI.

1.1.2.3 Language-based content instruction (LBCI) as the strong form of CBI

While some argue for the priority of language skills in CBI (e.g. Brinton and Holten, 2001), others emphasize content mastery as the pedagogical objective of the approach (e.g. Mohan, 2001). They define CBI as an approach in which content knowledge is introduced through the medium of the target language. During the process of acquiring the content knowledge, students are expected to develop the related language skills incidentally. This approach can be labeled as LBCI (language-based content instruction) since it aims at content mastery in the language and content learning continuum (see figure 1.1 on page 24).

Sheltered and immersion programmes (Brinton, *et al.*, 1987 and Genesee, 1987) are examples of LBCI. In these programmes, content knowledge is introduced by teachers with awareness of the level of students' target language proficiency. In sheltered courses (Brinton, *et al.*, 1987), content knowledge is introduced by a subject lecturer, who is normally a native speaker of the target language. Bearing in mind that all the students in sheltered courses are at the same time learners of the target language, the content teacher may adjust or simplify the language for instruction. The sheltered programme distinguishes itself from pure L2 content courses by sheltering the L2 learners from the students who speak the target language as their mother tongue. The sheltered courses also differ from EAP courses for the L2

learners because of the focus on the content.

As another example of LBCI, immersion programmes (Genesee, 1987) provide 'at least 50 percent of instruction during a given academic year' through the target language. Students as the L2 learners are therefore regarded as 'immersed' in the programme. The number of school subjects involved in the programme is the major feature of immersion. According to Genesee (1987: 1), "programmes in which one subject and language arts are taught through the second language are generally identified as enriched second language programmes".

Language   Content

CBLI   CLII   LBCI
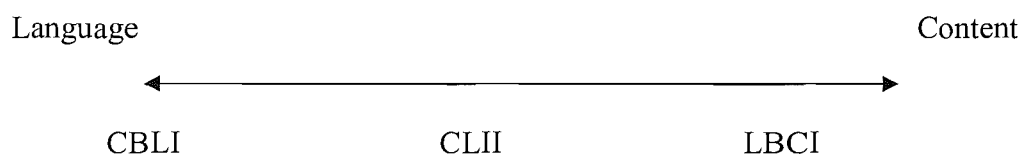
Figure 1.1 Different forms of CBI in the continuum of language and content learning

Although CBLI and LBCI can be viewed as the weak and the strong forms of CBI, one should not stick to either form in the teaching practice. In other words, the learners' needs do not normally stay the same during different stages of learning. As suggested by Brinton and Holten,

> inherent in CBI is a tension between language on the one hand and content on the other. Thus, while from the theoretical point of view it is argued that content presents an ideal vehicle for language to be presented, the practitioner is often left to his or her devices to decide when, how and even whether this presentation of language should occur during the act of teaching.
>
> (Brinton and Holten, 2001: 241)

To sum up, there are different forms of CBI. However, these forms should not be viewed as isolated as they seem to be in figure 1.1. First, both language and content are a developmental continuum. The study and the use of content knowledge cannot

be restricted to or fully introduced by the curriculum. Meanwhile, language is dynamic, socio-culturally specific and situationally dependent and therefore should not be taught in isolation from the specific content and context. Secondly, students' needs in content and language vary in different learning stages, and different pedagogical focus is therefore demanded. Finally, the learners' development in language skills may facilitate comprehension of the content materials, while a good command of content knowledge may contribute to language development. To some extent, the inherent relationship between language and content allows them to serve as scaffolding to development in content areas.

1.1.3 Contextualizing CBI in EFL settings

Since the purpose of this thesis is to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI in further education in China, it is worthwhile viewing CBI from an EFL perspective. The CBI approach has given rise to considerable interest in many ESL and EFL settings. Application of CBI seems to be affected by the two different types of EFL contexts as argued by Blue (1996): English speaking countries as a foreign language context for non-native students and non-English speaking countries where students study the language.

English-speaking countries like the UK, Australia and the US, etc. set an EFL context for overseas students. Almost all the subject courses as well as EAP courses are taught through the medium of English. These courses can be viewed as at the strong end of the CBI scale. At the end of the English-medium content study in this kind of EFL context, most of the overseas students succeed in their academic pursuits. However, it is hardly convincing to say that the students' academic success is closely linked to the English-medium classes (Long, 1983). In other words, English-medium instruction may not improve the students' academic English language skills, at least not all of the four basic language skills are well developed in this strong CBI form.

Studying and working in the University of Southampton, I have had the chance to talk with many overseas students in the U.K. about their language and content development in an English-medium teaching environment. I conducted some informal interviews with some overseas students while I was traveling or working with them. They are from Asian countries such as China, Vietnam and Thailand, where English is normally used as a foreign language. These students are studying in the University of Southampton for a Master's degree in commercial law, risk management and international banking, etc. The following is transcription of part of an interview with a Chinese law student concerning his study experience in this British university. As he said,

> We cannot wait to go back to our own room or library. What the teachers are talking about is just hard to understand. We may be able to understand some of the instruction if we pay enough attention. However, who can concentrate on the instruction in a foreign language for over fifteen minutes? It is more sensible for us to find out the right materials, read it and discuss it with my friends in my own language.
>
> (Transcribed from the informal interview in L1, translation mine)

From the experience of these students as EFL learners, it seems that overseas students may, at least at the beginning of a course of pure L2 content instruction, resort to L1 materials or consult their L1 peers for content information. The English-medium classes are, to some extent, a waste of time, if not a torture. By working hard on the combination of L1 and L2 content sources, these students may eventually receive high marks from their content teachers who value content meaning considerably.

Similar to these overseas students, many other EFL students in English-speaking countries find it hard to learn the language concurrently with the content knowledge. However, at the end of the one-year study, most of them have made remarkable progress in both general and content-specific language skills. They receive the

Master's degree successfully and are capable of communicating with their subject teachers, peer students and the local residents in English. Their language development may, to a large extent, result from a massive exposure to the target language.

Compared with overseas students in English-speaking countries, CBI learners in non-English-speaking countries generally have far less chance to practise the language. They may not even need English to access content knowledge and information. In this kind of EFL context, such as China, all the content subjects are, or can be, taught in the students' L1. Teachers and students communicate with a shared mother tongue. Pure English-medium instruction can only be conducted by a few qualified CBI teachers to a group of students with high English language proficiency. Abundant supplementary L1 content materials and teacher-student L1 communication outside of CBI classes are also applied to reinforce the content knowledge. Apart from introducing academic language skills to a limited number of students to study abroad, most of these CBI classes seem to echo the language policy of the government. This language policy in education may be based on the expansion of English as a global lingua franca. However, it may take a while for the educational practitioners to realize that English-medium content instruction not only prepares Chinese students to study overseas but also attracts students from other countries to study in Chinese universities.

1.2 CBI and EAP: the relationship

According to definitions of CBI proposed from different aspects, the approach seems to bear some resemblance to other language teaching approaches, especially when the concept of CBI is fixed in a broad umbrella of content and language integration (see table 1.2 on page 18). It might be problematic to claim a clear-cut distinction between CBI and other language approaches. Concerning the involvement of academic subjects, as well as the academic setting where CBI is conducted, it is even

more difficult to draw a strict line between CBI and EAP. There are two main purposes of this section: finding out the distinguishing features of the CBI approach as one, and comparing CBI with EAP as the other.

1.2.1 Characteristics of CBI

Stryker and Leaver (1997) summarise three characteristics of the CBI curriculum. These characteristics can also be viewed as criteria of CBI. First of all, involvement of the content subject in the CBI curriculum differentiates this approach from general purpose English (GPE) -oriented language approaches as well as the L2 mainstream courses. Related to the first characteristics, materials used in CBI courses are content-centred, so are the language skills introduced in the classes. Finally, with the recognition of the students' needs in present content study and future work, CBI aims to meet students' immediate academic need and to support autonomous and continuous learning.

1.2.1.1 Subject-matter core

As the first characteristic, subject-matter core differentiates the CBI approach from traditional language approaches including grammar-translation approach and notional-functional approach. In these approaches, academic subject information is rarely introduced. It is even rare for content mastery to carry pedagogical importance in traditional language classes. In CBI, however, subject-matter is the core. In other words, the CBI curriculum is designed with content knowledge at the centre. The language skills should be introduced, implicitly or explicitly, in order to facilitate content study. Meanwhile, the CBI teacher or curricular designer should be concerned with the sequencing of the content (Stryker and Leaver, 1997: 289). For example, the subject themes and topics introduced in the CBI classes, as well as the language activities, should progress from the simple and elementary level to an abstract and advanced level.

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Surely the difference between CBI and other language approaches lies not only in what to teach but also in how to teach. For example, the grammar-translation approach emphasises the significance of raising the students' consciousness to linguistic rules in language teaching (McDonough and Shaw, 1993). Communicative language teaching emphasizes interaction as both the means to and the ultimate goal of learning a language (Nunan, 1989, 1991). Advocates of CBI believe that the involvement of relevant subject matter knowledge may motivate the students to be more actively engaged in language activities and thus develop the relevant skills.

A content-driven CBI curriculum does not necessarily mean that CBI replaces or can be replaced by L2 mainstream courses, where the content is introduced in the target language (e.g. immersion programme). In L2 mainstream programmes, content is the sole focus of teaching. Language skills are expected to be acquired by students as incidence or by-product of the L2 medium instruction. In contrast, most CBI classes, if not all, value explicit and/or implicit language teaching. In weaker forms of CBI, moreover, content information is involved to contextualise language learning. The accomplishment of content introduction is often out of consideration.

1.2.1.2   Authentic language and texts

According to Stryker and Leaver (1997), the second criterion of CBI focuses on the authenticity of teaching materials and language activities. Authentic materials are generally understood as course books and other texts produced by and for native speakers of the target language. Difficulties raised by the language and content can be reduced by teachers' selective use of the materials. For example, CBI teachers may choose intermediate course books used in the UK to teach college students in China. They may also resort to L1 sometimes due to the complexity of the knowledge in question.

Considering an in-depth interpretation of authenticity, inappropriate use of authentic materials may risk losing authenticity. An authentic text produced for the native

speakers of the language may not be authentic when it is used for L2 learners. Language used for classroom teaching may not be authentic compared with the language used in the target situation. In short, language teaching cannot be authentic without a precise analysis of the L2 students' knowledge background and learning experience.

As pointed out by Van Lier (1996: 127), authenticity is not a product, or language property, nor is it language use. Instead, it refers to "*a process of validation, or authentication*" (italics as original). This argument echoes Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) suggestion that activities based on the text are more important than the genuine text itself. One should take into account not only authentic texts but also authentic purposes (i.e. what to teach) (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Authentic materials should be authenticated by the teachers and the students through self-evaluation (i.e. who to teach), understanding the purpose of learning as well as the situation.

1.2.1.3 Focus on specific needs of specific student groups

Meeting the needs of specific students may not be CBI-specific. It should be taken into account in all kinds of instruction. What distinguishes CBI from other approaches including ESP is that, being closely linked to the students' subject matter study, CBI aims to help the students develop specific language skills, maintain a better understanding of content knowledge and gain cognitive skills that benefit the students academically and professionally.

Learners' need has caught increasing attention since ESP (English for specific purposes) emerged with the instructional focus shifting from teacher to learner and from teaching to learning. By categorising ESP into EAP (English for academic purposes) and EOP (English for occupational purposes) (e.g. Dudley-Evans & St John., 1998), ESP specialists seem to focus on what to teach/learn and how to teach

(e.g. team-teaching by Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Some language learning strategies are also introduced (e.g. O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). However, students are not given ample opportunities to practise these strategies to learn how to learn. This is not only because of the limited time for practice provided by these courses, but also because the content involved in the course does not generate much practice opportunities.

In CBI, not only the students' language, academic and cognitive needs are taken in to account, but also their need to continue learning and be lifetime learners (Brinton *et al.*, 1989, Snow and Brinton, 1997, Stryker and Leaver, 1997). Teachers can only introduce a very limited amount of knowledge and information in the class. Students need to be informed of the limitation of classroom knowledge and encouraged to learn what they need or want to know. The huge space of the unknown world in various areas also requires students to keep an open mind and update their knowledge framework when needed. In a sense, learning is a lifetime job. Students need to be able to learn when they want to. That is the aim of CBI.

1.2.2   CBI and EAP: the link and differences

The existence of CBI-oriented articles in ESP journals (e.g. 'content-based language instruction in a tertiary setting' by Flowerdew, 1993) and the concurrent existence of CBI and EAP in the same article (e.g. 'content-based English for academic purposes in a Thai university' by Owens, C. in Crandall and Kaufman (Eds.), 2002) indicates that there is a close link between CBI and ESP/EAP.

Johns (1997) summarizes the link between CBI and ESP by arguing that "ESP is a super-ordinate term for all good ESL/EFL teaching, and CBI is a central force in this movement" (1997: 363). In her argument, ESP is viewed from a broader aspect including the traditional grammar-translation approach, the functional approach and the communicative approach, etc. Any of these approaches can be classified as good

language teaching as long as they meet the learners' needs. For example, the traditional approach may be good if grammar is what the students need in learning a language, and communicative approach should be adopted if there is more demand of communication with the language.

CBI contributes to the ESP movement by relating language teaching to language use in the target situation in real world. In academic settings where language classes tend to be EAP-oriented, CBI as 'central force in ESP movement' may be interpreted as that the approach relates subject knowledge and information with relevant language skills. For example, general introduction of knowledge in various academic disciplines may contribute to EGAP (English for general academic purposes) courses, while in-depth study of materials in specific content area may serve ESAP (English for specific academic purposes) courses. From this aspect, CBI is seen as an approach to EAP.

In contrast with Johns' argument, other language teaching researchers and practitioners like Flowerdew (1993: 123) insist that CBI is a logical extension of ESP/EAP. This is based on the viewpoint that language skills learned from EAP classes will finally be used for study or research in particular content areas.

The argument that CBI is an approach to EAP reflects the fact that language learning is related to language use, and therefore systematic introduction of content knowledge should be involved in academic language teaching. The argument of CBI as a logical extension of EAP indicates language use as the final target of language learning. However, this argument seems to separate CBI from EAP and only apply to the strong forms of CBI. The link between EAP and CBI is tackled in more detail as follows.

1.2.2.1 CBI as an approach to EAP

Johns (1997) argues that CBI is subordinate to EAP. Her argument is echoed by Brinton and Holten (2001: 251) who claim that "CBI is a highly effective method of delivering EAP instruction" and Song (2006: 420) who views CBI as "a widely adopted pedagogical approach to EAP".

The argument of CBI as an approach to EAP may be based on the belief that "the goal of CBI is to provide a meaningful context for language teaching to occur" (Brinton & Holten, 2001: 240). Since strong forms of CBI emphasize the function side of the language while many EAP courses stress on the form, their relationship concerns the accuracy/fluency problem.   By arguing that CBI provides a meaningful source of linguistic instruction, Master (2000) views CBI as giving a context for grammatical teaching. As he claims:

> Content-based instruction is an ideal means of assuring the integration of [form-focused
>
> instruction]. By dealing with grammar within the context of understanding content, many of
>
> the original criticisms of the grammatical syllabus are satisfied: students no longer deal with
>
> decontextualised sentences or spend years learning isolated rules that inhibit their spoken
>
> fluency.
>
> Master (2000: 94)

Disagreeing with Master's view of CBI as contextual base of language instruction, Brinton and Holten (2001: 248-249) argue that more systematic attention should be paid to overt language teaching. They provide three factual reasons for their argument: 1) the students expect more grammatical instruction and correction so that they can develop their language proficiency; 2) lacking adequate training, most CBI teachers struggle with the meaning-form balance in their pedagogical practice; and 3) the importance of advanced language proficiency in students' academic success is underestimated in many academic settings.

It might be true that advanced target language proficiency is desirable for students. However, one needs to consider the teachers' role in conducting learner needs analysis in a wider dimension. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), learners' needs consist of 1) what is required of learners in their target situations, 2) what they lack currently compared with what they have learned, and 3) what learners themselves want to learn. Recognition of the three components of learners' needs may help one to realize that 1) students might not always know what will be demanded of them in their future work places; 2) there should be a coherent link between students' old and new knowledge and 3) what teachers are teaching might not be what students want to learn.

Concerning language and content teaching, it is the teacher's responsibility to guide students to realize that overt grammatical instruction does not necessarily lead to improved accuracy. The achievement of linguistic accuracy requires correct understanding of the content, rich opportunities of communicating in the language, and full recognition of the contextual environment. A simple example can be that a good academic presentation may not be spoiled by misuse of tense and personal pronoun. At the same time, accurate use of each lexical and syntactical item is certainly not enough for any good presentation.

The view of CBI as an approach to EAP may be based on the pedagogical fact that subject content enriches students' opportunities to practise the language and therefore contextualize language teaching. Meanwhile, it may be true that language teaching calls for 'systematic and principled attention' (Brinton & Holten, 2001: 251) due to CBI teachers' headache in timing language and content instruction and administrators' insufficient recognition of the importance of language proficiency. Nonetheless, EAP should not be viewed as the end of academic language instruction. As Van Lier (1996: 90) claims, "We do not teach linguistics because it is there, but because it helps us to solve language problems in real-life tasks".

1.2.2.2 CBI as extension of EAP

In contrast to some linguistic researchers and educators' view of CBI as an approach to EAP, others like Flowerdew (1993: 123) insist that CBI should be a logical extension of ESP/EAP. In this argument, EAP is considered as an approach to prepare linguistic abilities for content area communication and exploration.

In accordance with Flowerdew's argument, academic linguistic skills acquired in EAP courses should be used for study and research in content fields. The advantage of CBI lies in the recognition of language not only as a process of learning but also as a tool to learn.

Flowerdew's argument emphasizes language use rather than usage. In EAP classes, the students may build certain amount of vocabulary and learn sentence structures and discourse features that appear in academic texts. Language skills and learning strategies acquired in EAP classes provide considerable help for the students to understand content lectures and accomplish academic tasks. However, these skills and strategies do not necessarily bring about immediate academic success, especially when most EAP courses run only six to ten weeks before the students enter in L2 mainstream classes. The learners need further exposure to how the academic lexis and register markers etc. are used in specific content texts and contexts. They also need richer opportunities to experience the use of language skills by completing various content-related tasks. During this process of further exposure and experience, students practise language skills, evaluate learning strategies and develop content competence. In a sense, CBI may not be powerful enough to replace EAP. However, it provides a closer link between academic language and content study, and therefore provides more readiness for students' study or research in the L2.

The argument also indicates that there exists a threshold level of language

proficiency before students are ready for L2-medium content courses. That is, students need to be prepared with "a database of language used in content classes as a basis for fostering the acquisition of higher level communicative abilities within the limited code available in the content classes" (Flowerdew, 1993: 133). Meanwhile, they are educated to understand "the role that is expected of them" so as to develop their cognitive abilities.

Pedagogical practice of prototypes of CBI has proved that a certain level of language proficiency should not, or may not always, be a prerequisite of CBI. According to Grabe and Stoller (1997: 5), earlier versions of CBI were used in K-12 programmes (i.e. publicly-supported schooling system applied in the United States, Canada and other countries, which provide prior-college education staged from kindergarten to the 12th), immigrant language courses and university-level education. Pedagogical difficulties are raised by content and language integration. However, it is down to teachers to adjust the level of language and content difficulty involved in CBI classes.

It is understandable that students might be daunted when their subject course is introduced in an unfamiliar language. However, teachers, supported by their own learning experiences, should analyze why students struggle and predict learners' improvement during the programme. It is not unusual to see the student progress under reasonable high pressure, which helps to explain the why students feel less stressed when the programme has been running for a certain amount of time. As stated by Brinton and Holten (2001: 244), "in their end-of-course evaluations, the students were less vocal and less consistent ... ... in their calls for more instruction in grammar and vocabulary". However, the students' less explicit demand for formal linguistic teaching should not be ignored. Some of them might be convinced by the power of CBI. The others might just give up complaining due to the teachers' persistence with the approach. There is no need to sacrifice accuracy to fluency. Accurate use of grammatical and lexical items is what students need if that is what

they lack. However, maintaining the priority of linguistic accuracy does not necessarily call for explicit language instruction. Implicit language teaching can also be effective.

In language teaching, there is doubtless great value in paying attention to students' cognitive abilities. Most of these abilities including questioning, note taking and critical thinking, etc., are transferable and therefore can be used to facilitate content development. However, students' cognitive abilities may not be improved merely through teachers' reminding or informing students of what are expected of them by the content and the language departments. This may result in limiting the development of the students' critical thinking skills and self reflection. Since the students' self-decision is denied, the course then loses its authenticity (Van Lier, 1996).

In sum, the view of CBI as extension of EAP emphasizes the importance of academic language skills in students' content study. However, seeing language learning as the starting point of academic success may result in isolating language from the content, language use from the usage. Researchers who view CBI either as extension of or as approach to EAP stand on the common ground that there is link between CBI and EAP.

1.2.2.3   Common ground between CBI and EAP

The common ground between EAP and CBI may be based on the fact that both of the approaches are conducted in academic settings, and on the belief that all good language teaching should be purposeful and meaningful. As summarized by Johns (1997),

1. Language instruction in both ESP/EAP and CBI is related to 'the contexts and demands of real language use'.

2. The content and activities in the language classroom are meaningful to the students since they focus on the target situation.

3. 'Genuine language and authentic classroom activities' in both CBI and ESP/EAP 'encourage the transfer of language skills and content to real life'.

(Johns, 1997: 363-364)

Johns has certainly summarized some common ground between CBI and EAP. However, not all the arguments in the summary are as clear and convincing as they might at first appear. First of all, language skills in ESP/EAP and CBI may not always be more useful than those introduced in general purpose English (GPE) classes. In other words, not all the students learn language for academic or professional purposes. Some students may learn the language for specific purposes; however, some may learn the language due to their interest in the general use of the language. Therefore, EAP and CBI are only suitable for students who have particular interest in specific subjects.

Secondly, it is not known how powerful focusing on the target situation is for making meaningful content and activities. This is especially true when the students do not have working experience in any academic or professional field and therefore lack a full understanding of the target situation.

Finally, there is no clear demonstration of 'genuine language' and 'authentic activities'. According to Widdowson (1979), genuineness refers to a property of language samples that are not created for the sake of learning the language per se. Therefore, an article from the newspaper can be a genuine piece of language, but it may not necessarily help to create authentic opportunities for language use.

It is the purpose of this section to summarize some more similarities between EAP

and CBI. In order to reach the summary, it is helpful to take a look at the criteria of the two approaches.

Strevens' (1988) four absolute characteristics of ESP/EAP are frequently quoted and may be referred to as the criteria of EAP. According to Strevens, ESP/EAP courses should be

1. designed to meet specified needs of the learner

2. related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities

3. centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics etc., and analysis of this discourse

4. in contrast with 'General English'.

(Strevens, 1988, cited in Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001: 13)

Spanos (1987: 229) proposes five basic criteria of successful CBI. As he argues,

1. Language teaching should be related to the eventual uses to which the learner will put the language

2. The use of informational content tends to increase the motivation of the language learner

3. Effective teaching requires attention to prior knowledge, existing knowledge, the total academic environment and the linguistic proficiency of the learner

4. Language teaching should focus on contextualised language use rather than on sentence level usage

5. Language learning is promoted by a focus on significant and relevant content from which learners can derive the cognitive structures that facilitate the acquisition of vocabulary and syntax as well as written and oral production

(Spanos, 1987: 229)

As can be seen, the most obvious similarity between EAP and CBI is that they both focus (English) language teaching on specific skills. In other words, the two approaches aim to meet the needs of specific student group/s. These students may share similar language learning experience, interest in specific content area, or a similar purpose for learning the language. This similarity is reflected in Strevens' (1988) criteria 1 and 4 of EAP and Spanos' (1987) criterion 1 of CBI.

The other similarity lies in their relating language teaching to the knowledge and information in specific content subjects. As shown in Strevens' (1988) criterion 2 of EAP and Spanos' (1987) criteria 2 and 5 of CBI, both approaches take into account the role of relevant content knowledge in increasing language learners' motivation. This is not to say that the involvement of content knowledge leads to an automatic increase in motivation. However, students may have more practical opportunities when the language and the content subject that students are concurrently studying play a supplementary role to each other. As illustrated in Spanos' (1987) criterion 5 of CBI, relevant content may help learners to acquire lexis and syntax in the area, while the learners' cognitive abilities may be developed during the process of relating the specific content meaning to linguistic forms.

To sum up, both CBI and EAP direct language teaching to the specific needs of the specific student group. Therefore, the general content involved in language classes is restricted to specific areas which students are studying. In this way, students may be better motivated and more actively engaged in language activities. However, motivation is also affected by teaching methods, the learning environment and the personalities of students as individuals.

1.2.2.4   Differences between EAP and CBI

As discussed previously, student needs provide the common ground between EAP and CBI. However, it is also student needs that differentiate the two approaches from

each other. As argued by Johns (1997),

> (ESP/EAP) courses are often designed for adult students whose needs are more immediate,
> identifiable, and specific than those of children. These courses tend to be short, needs-based,
> and focused.
>
> ...
>
> CBI is generally a multiskill approach, integrating the four skills in order to make the
> language learning experience authentic and to reflect the learning styles and strategies of
> the variety of students enrolled (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). ESP has often been limited to
> one skill
>
> (Johns, 1997: 365)

When there is more demand for language skills, the language class tends to bear more features of EAP, while the CBI approach may be more appropriate when content knowledge is at the centre of the learners' interest. In pedagogical reality, either of the approaches could be adopted to teach a student group or a particular student in different learning stages. Therefore, disregarding the weak and the strong forms of CBI, pedagogical focus is the first element in the differences between EAP and CBI.

a)   Content meaning vs. linguistic form

As can be seen from Strevens' (1988) ESP/EAP criterion 3, EAP takes place in the form of language instruction; the pedagogical focus is often on linguistic forms in a specific academic area including syntax, lexis and discourse, etc. An aviation English course for colleges and universities in China, for example, follows a framework in which corpus study of the language and register and/or discourse analysis in the field (Wang, 2007). However, EAP can also include, for example, TBL (task-based learning) with a focus on meaning and accomplishing a task.

According to Spanos' (1987) CBI criterion 3, CBI bears the primary responsibility of teaching content knowledge rather than 'sentence level' language usage. The relevant language skills are expected to be acquired incidentally during the content-related activities, including searching for content materials, accomplishing content tasks, engaging in content-area discussion, etc. In a sense, content study initiates language acquisition in the CBI classes.

b)   Immediate help vs. life-long support

According to Johns (1997: 365), EAP courses 'are often designed for adult students whose needs are more immediate, identifiable, and specific'. As adults, most EAP students have immediate needs for specific language skills. Some expect to compose articles with a high academic standard. Others may be more interested in how to make the most of the L2 content lectures and materials. These students go into the EAP courses with clearly defined purposes and come out with immediate use of the specific language skills.

In the CBI approach, however, students may or may not have decided on their major subject. The approach can therefore be applied in secondary schools (e.g. CLIL in many European countries) and university education (e.g. English-medium subject classes in Chinese and Thai universities). The content involved in CBI classes is normally a subject matter in the regular curriculum. Apart from developing multi-language skills in a specific subject matter (Johns, 1997), the CBI approach also develops a democratic learning environment due to the communicative interaction between the teacher and the students. That is, students are guided to be responsible for their integrative learning, while the teacher may not be the expert in either the language or the content field.

By taking into account students' previous and current knowledge and experience, CBI broadens students' opportunities to develop, practise and evaluate their cognitive

skills. The target language as the medium of content instruction may not necessarily produce short-term effects on students' content development compared with the L1 or L2 content classes. However, the development of cognitive abilities and critical skills may foster learner independence and autonomy, and therefore contribute to long-term academic success (Song, 2006).

To sum up, both EAP and CBI focus language instruction on the learners' academic needs, and therefore integrate language learning with content targets. However, most EAP courses are linguistically-oriented, while CBI places more emphasis on content meaning. The EAP approach meets the students' immediate language needs in various content subjects, while CBI may have a long-term effect on the learners.

The relationship between EAP and CBI reflects the different emphasis placed on language and content in pedagogical practice. There are different approaches to both EAP and CBI, but they can all be seen as a continuum, with a focus on language at one end and a focus on content at the other. On the one hand, the aim of academic success in EAP requires the involvement of content materials to make language learning meaningful. On the other hand, overt and/or covert instruction in linguistic forms, including lexical items, registers, and discourse markers, is needed in the CBI approach since they may not be acquired through mere exposure to the language.

1.3 The link between CBI and other approaches and methodologies

There are many successful examples of CBI in various education settings and contexts. However, the approach itself does not guarantee success. An effective CBI course depends heavily on the teachers' understanding of the approach, which is closely related to their ability to differentiate CBI from and link it to other approaches. This section compares CBI with four approaches and methods: L2 content teaching, bilingual education, grammar-translation and task-based learning.

1.3.1 CBI is not L2 content teaching although text-based L2 content is used in class

L2 content teaching refers to the content classes where the target language is the only medium of teaching. This approach is similar to immersion programmes, where content mastery is the main purpose of instruction. Students are expected to acquire the language as a by-product of the approach. However, immersion students might be 'submerged' if their language and content background is not strong enough to support their understanding the language and the content introduced in the classes.

Although there is a certain amount of L2 use in CBI classes to introduce some content-area information, CBI is different from L2-medium content teaching. First of all, in many EFL contexts like China, the students access most, if not all, the content area information through the L1. It is more convenient for teachers and students to purchase L1 content materials than those written in L2. Most content courses are taught in L1 as the mother tongue of both the teachers and the students.

Secondly, the students' content study is not the only focus of the CBI classes. The use of L2 content texts in CBI may lead to an in-depth understanding of some content-related concepts and information. Sometimes, however, the students' content-area language skills may carry more weight in the CBI curriculum. Both the language and the content can be at the centre of different stages of a CBI programme.

1.3.2 CBI is not bilingual education although both L1 and L2 may be used in the approach

Since both L1 and L2 can be used in CBI classes, there is a misunderstanding that CBI is bilingual education. The purpose of bilingual education is to develop the students' L1 and L2 knowledge and help them to be bilingual and bicultural (Spolsky, 1998, cited in Widdowson, 2003). Although some CBI students may achieve a

bilingual state, bilingualism is not the aim of the CBI teachers' use of L2 or L1 + L2. It is not unusual in CBI and EAP classes for students to try to find the L1 equivalents of the L2 items, while the teachers are focusing on the L2 as the target language (Widdowson, 2003: 154). Instead of bilingualism and biculturalism, the CBI approach aims at students' development in the content, the L2 and cognitive skills.

1.3.3 CBI and the grammar-translation approach

The concurrent language and content teaching makes CBI an evolutionary approach. However, an effective CBI programme may depend heavily on appropriate use of some traditional methods.

In an EFL context like China, most students receive L2 skills through the grammar-translation approach before they enter further or higher educational settings. This English language teaching method in traditional language classes in China includes introducing grammatical items, practising the usage of words and expressions and sentence level translation into L1. This method is believed to be effective in helping the students understand and memorize the text (Wang, 2007: 123).

The use of traditional language methods in CBI can also be found in CLIL (content language integrated learning) programmes in many ESL settings including France (see Grenfell, 2002: 61) and Germany (see Grenfell, 2002: 84). It may take time for the students to accommodate to CBI as an integrative approach. However, the effectiveness of the grammar-translation approach in introducing linguistic rules indicates that the CBI teachers do not need to avoid explicit language teaching through the traditional approaches.

1.3.4   CBI and the task-based approach

CBI is regarded as a new approach due to its concurrent focus on language, content and the students' cognitive abilities. However, this aim is hardly achievable through activities in CBI classes. According to Van Lier (1996: 43), 'language development occurs *between* lessons rather than *during* lessons' (italics original). Tasks can be used as an effective way of balancing what is done in the classroom and what is done outside of the classroom. Skehan (1998) proposed four criteria that tasks in the CBI approach should satisfy:

- (content) Meaning is primary.
- There is a goal which needs to be worked towards.
- The activity is outcome-evaluated.
- There is a real-world relationship.

Skehan (1998: 268)

Concerning Van Lier's (1996: 43, as quoted above) argument that learning happens after class, one more criterion may be (and this is certainly the case in WLC): there is a reasonable gap between the classroom knowledge and abilities required for the fulfillment of the task.

Content-related tasks, as well as the student homework, provide opportunities for the students to practise the language and content knowledge that is introduced in CBI classes. The process of completing these tasks also helps students to develop their cognitive skills. They need to decide what kind of information to use and how to attain the information. Students experience a process of information analyzing and synthesizing before presenting the information.

In brief, the task-based approach can be used by teachers to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of CBI classes. These tasks are normally content-oriented but can

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also be language-oriented. Teachers can decide on the difficulty of the tasks according to the students' language and content background. The popularity of the task-based approach in CBI is also reflected by CLIL teachers in European countries. As reported by Wolff (2002),

> a growing number of CLIL/MLAC teachers are also trying to introduce project work, independent learning, and learning strategies into classroom pedagogy. They have realised that there is great pedagogical potential in a CLIL learning environment. Although in general these teachers base their teaching on written materials from various sources, they also have their pupils work on these materials more independently in small groups by giving them tasks to solve and by encouraging them to use other materials at their disposal. These materials can be language materials (dictionaries, grammars) but also content subject materials (authentic materials from other sources, for example reviews, text-books, the internet).

(Wolff, 2002: 84)

1.4 Theoretical support for CBI

Although the term CBI seems new compared with EAP, the approach is supported by language learning theories and practices. In other words, CBI is a concept with deep roots but a new name.

According to Snow and Brinton (1997), the major theoretical support for CBI comes from Krashen's (1985) Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis, and Cummins' (1984) framework of language proficiency. Another significant support is contributed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), with their widely quoted argumentation on the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA).

Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis, as suggested by Snow and Brinton (1997), has an influential effect on CBI, as it relates language form to meaning and

language learning occurs when the meaning is understood. Krashen focuses his hypothesis on the L2 learners' speaking abilities. As claimed by Krashen (1985), it is not helpful to force the learners to speak prematurely. Similar to Krashen's hypothesis, Swain's output hypothesis also places much emphasis on speaking. This hypothesis, however, provides a more balanced foundation for integrated instruction of language and content, which claims the importance of language production in the process of language learning. Cummins' theoretical framework of language proficiency provides another theoretical support of CBI, which links language skills to academic success. CALLA by O'Malley and Chamot enriches the theoretical foundation of CBI by taking into account students' development in cognitive abilities employed in language and content learning. The similarity between Cummins' framework and CALLA lies in the focus on the L2 learning in academic settings.

1.4.1   Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis

Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis is considered by Snow and Brinton (1997: 6) as the initial theoretical origin of CBI. Meaningful and understandable input plays a vital role in both L2 acquisition and content study (Snow & Brinton: 1997).

In his five hypotheses with 'comprehensible input' at the centre, Krashen (1985) argues that acquisition of a language occurs only under the condition that the learner receives sufficient and understandable input with reduced anxiety. Comprehensible input is regarded as the essential environmental ingredient for L2 acquisition. In this environment, the learners *acquire* incidentally the target language in a 'natural order'. Meanwhile, they are willing to *learn* the language when the 'affective filters' is low due to the comfortable and unstressed learning environment. As Krashen argues,

People acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input 'in'. When the filter is 'down' and appropriate comprehensible input is presented (and comprehended), acquisition is inevitable. It is, in fact, unavoidable and cannot be prevented.

(Krashen, 1985: 4)

Among Krashen's five hypotheses, the narrow input hypothesis contributes more to the theoretical support for CBI. He argues that: 1). Linguistic factors should be narrowed down to the main stream, for specific subject matter requires a certain amount of syntax, vocabulary, and sentence structures. However, these linguistic properties are in most cases cross-domain (Krashen, 1985:82); 2). Subject concepts should be introduced in the target language first in order to reduce the difficulty and amount of mainstream terminologies, and to increase students' familiarity with complex social and professional background information; and 3) Input in the content area takes more advantage of students' background knowledge, and therefore provides more comprehensible input, which results in greater understanding and ability in the subject matter study. As claimed by Krashen (1985:82), narrow input 'builds in' the target language rather than 'adds' the language to the content area knowledge.

Krashen's input hypothesis has encountered criticism from different aspects. Theoretically, McLaughlin (1987: 55-56) argues that Krashen's Comprehensible Input hypothesis 'does not score well' against any of the four criteria for a good theory, i.e.1) definitional precision and explanatory power, 2) consistency with what is known, 3) richness in predictions, and 4) falsifiability. From some social realistic aspects, the sufficiency of comprehensible input is questioned by a number of teachers and researchers (e.g. Swain, 1985, McLaughlin, 1987; Van Lier, 1996, Grenfell, 2002 and Mitchell and Myles, 2004). First of all, understanding the meaning does not lead to the ability to use the language. As Van Lier (1996: 44) says, learners, even the very well motivated ones, just cannot make their mouth say

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'those things' the way native speakers do. Secondly, the input may not be understood as fully as the L2 learners think it is. Furthermore, things understood may not be the things needed or wanted by the learner due to the language learning environment.

Krashen's input hypothesis may be a poorly-based theory which fails to consider other factors in language learning. However, this hypothesis has been very influential and it provides essential theoretical support for CBI by calling for a shift of pedagogical focus from language form to content meaning. Although understanding the meaning is not the sole basis of language acquisition, learning cannot occur if the meaning is not understood. By involving meaningful content in language classes, CBI aims to enhance students' opportunity to understand the usage of language and to experience how the language is used in order to express content meanings. This has been a very important principle for CBI.

Overestimating the significance of comprehension might be one of the weakest spots of Krashen's hypothesis. Comprehension alone does not lead automatically to language learning, students learn a second language by actually using it. As McLaughlin put it, "unless learners try out the language, they are unlikely to get the kind of feedback they need to analyze the structure of the language" (1987: 50). Also, the learners themselves would not have a sense of achievement in language learning until they are able to produce meaningful output with it. Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, which is discussed in the following section, thus comes into play as a second theoretical support for CBI.

1.4.2 Swain's Output Hypothesis

By questioning the sufficiency of comprehensible input in L2 instruction, Swain (1985) argues that learners need to use the language for communicative purposes in order to learn the language. To set a contrast with Krashen's hypothesis of

comprehensible input, Swain's theory is named as comprehensible output hypothesis. Instead of a sole focus on meaning, the output hypothesis calls for a certain degree of attention to language form in various content areas and social contexts.

Swain's output hypothesis is based on her reassessment of French immersion programmes in Canada, where students in these programmes are provided with rich comprehensible input. The programme seems successful in developing receptive language skills since most immersion students achieved high level of reading and listening abilities. However, findings of the studies on the immersion programme also reveal weak productive skills of the students. As argued by Swain, despite high-level comprehension skills and communicative fluency, the students' grammatical accuracy remains low. According to Swain, the main reason for the less advanced productive skill is that students are not 'pushed' to produce a large amount of language output.

After proposing the output hypothesis, Swain extends the scope of the hypothesis by suggesting that form and meaning are equally important (Tarone & Swain, 1995). The concurrent emphasis on form and meaning derives from the belief that the purpose of language is communication, and all meaningful communication derives from a successful combination of formal accuracy and relevance to content and context.

Three main functions of output are later identified by Swain (1985, 1993, and 1995). First, it provides opportunity to test acquired knowledge. In other words, output has a hypothesis-testing function. By being pushed in the process of meaning negotiation, learners can be more accurate in their production. As argued by Schachter (1984), the learners are given the chance to try out ways of expressing their ideas and to learn from the feedback, positive or negative.

A second function of output refers to its metalinguistic function (Swain, 1995: 126). It provides opportunities for the learner to learn the language by using the language. During this process, the learner reflects on their language use by engaging in more syntactic processing. Through speaking, writing and communicating in the target language, the learner increases his/her awareness of language form, meaning, as well as the relationship between form and meaning.

Closely related to the first and the second function, output triggers noticing of a gap between what the learner wants to express, what he/she can express, what he/she expresses and how the information is interpreted by interlocutors. In other words, active and interactive use of the language raises the learners' consciousness of their linguistic problems and their temptation to seek the resolution (Swain, 1995: 125-26).

Applied to CBI, Swain's output hypothesis suggests that the students' opportunities for creative production should be increased in order for them to negotiate the content area knowledge as well as the knowledge of language. By engaging in content-related language activities, learners can study and check their newly acquired linguistic items by referring to positive and negative feedback. During this process, content knowledge and information may also be exchanged, interpreted and reinforced. The teachers' role is thus to design appropriate tasks and activities for output production.

Swain's output hypothesis based on the limitation of input hypothesis has its own limitations. On the one hand, the hypothesis does not provide pedagogical guidance on when students should be engaged in output production. On the other hand, Swain emphasizes that students should be 'pushed' to use the language. In pedagogical reality, many students may participate in classroom activities when they are forced by authorized power. Most students may practise more actively if they are motivated rather than pushed. In addition, teachers may need to encourage student

participation by providing linguistic, academic and strategic skills.

Swain's output hypothesis and Krashen's input hypothesis provide theoretical support for CBI by recognizing the role of content meaning in second language learning. We shall now consider the relationship between content meaning and linguistic form in language learning as well as the significance of L2 learning strategies. Content-related language competence is specified by Cummins as cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in an early formulation, while O'Malley and Chamot (1990) provide teachers with a guide to teaching language learning strategies.

1.4.3   Cummins' Framework of Language Proficiency

Cummins (1979) identifies two kinds of language skills fostered in and demanded of immigrant pupils in different communicative settings. Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) refers to language skills required for academic success, whereas the term Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) refers to language abilities acquired by the learner from social conversations. The distinction aims to draw attention to the very different time periods required by immigrant children to acquire conversational fluency in L2 as compared to the academic L2 proficiency. Cummins' research finds that although L2 learners may become conversationally fluent in English (BICS) within two years, it typically takes five to seven years for them to develop "grade level academic second language skills" (CALP).

Cummins' BICS/CALP distinction is used by many researchers (e.g. Crandall, 1987) to explain why students with native-like conversational L2 skills struggle to understand academic contents presented in the language. Cummins argues that BICS is acquired more quickly than CALP because the learning takes place in 'context-embedded' communicative situations. The learners therefore receive

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abundant contextual support to get the meaning through, for example, gestures, signals, physical objects, etc. In contrast, the development of CALP occurs in academic settings with reduced contextual support but high academic and cognitive demands.

Based on the further development of his BICS/CALP distinction, Cummins (1984:12) proposes a framework of language proficiency. In this framework, language proficiency is conceptualized along two continua: contextual support and cognitive demand. As shown in table 1.3, the horizontal continuum indicates the range of contextual support available for meaning expression and perception. The vertical continuum concerns the degree of cognitive involvement in language and content tasks and activities.

```
                        COGNITIVELY
                        DEMANDING
                            |
              A             |             D
CONTEXT- ———————————————————+——————————————————— CONTEXT-
EMBEDDED                    |                    REDUCED
              B             |             C
                            |
                        COGNITIVELY
                        UNDEMANDING
```
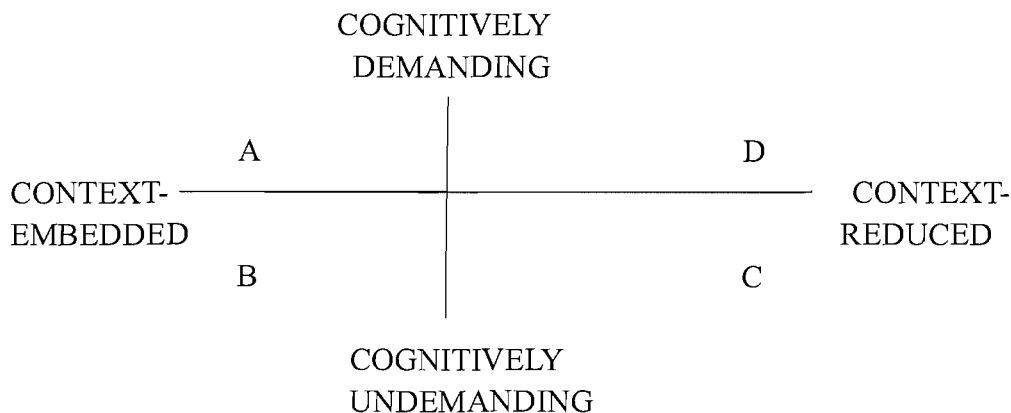
Table 1.3 Cummins' (1984) Framework of Language Proficiency

Cummins' theoretical framework seems to secure itself by overcoming the disadvantages in the dichotomy of BICS / CALP. However, it is not difficult to see the indication of BICS in quadrant B and CALP in quadrant D. Meanwhile, the existence of quadrant C remains subject to question due to the value of language proficiency with little context support and cognitive demand. As pointed out by Frederickson and Cline (1996), for example,

Those aspects of language use which were formerly described as BICS, therefore, are located in the new model, within the bottom left hand quadrant, being involved in tasks which are cognitively undemanding and embedded in meaningful context. Those aspects of language use which were formerly as CALP can be found in the top right hand quadrant where the child is engaged in cognitively demanding tasks where there is little supporting context.

(Frederickson & Cline, 1996: 15)

Cummins' framework provides important tools in curriculum planning and assessment. The teacher can, according to students' specific needs and learning difficulties, provide appropriate contextual support while creating various cognitive demands in tasks and activities. At the same time, they may collect valuable information about students' weakness and strength in language study.

Cummins' framework explains the significance of contextual support and content knowledge in language development. Learning academic language may be supported by content knowledge, while academic language proficiency may broaden academic access. Although this framework does not point directly to CBI, it provides pedagogical guidance in CBI classes. According to students' language proficiency and their content background, the teacher can adjust the degree of the involvement of content information, the use of the target language and the related tasks and classroom interactions.

Hall (1996) proposes a good example of Cummins' framework in educational practice. For students with learning difficulties, the teacher may reduce the cognitive requirement and provide rich contextual support. With the development of students' language proficiency, the teacher can increase the cognitive demand while ensuring comprehension through concrete contextual support. To very able students, tasks with high cognitive demands and low contextual support should be provided much more often.

In teaching reality, however, there is not always a close link between the two elements. As pointed out by Blue (1996), "the higher up the academic ladder you climb, the less important language proficiency seems to be", and "students from certain language backgrounds can actually do quite well in certain subjects with a lower level of language proficiency".

With respect to Blue's (1996) discussion on language proficiency and subject success, Cummins' theoretical framework also contribute to CBI by relating language teaching to students' academic achievement. As claimed by Cummins, students need to build up cognitive academic language proficiency *while* they are learning content information. This is because: 1) L2 students cannot wait for 5-7 years before they make the commitment to subject matter study instructed in the second language; and 2) the students' complex educational needs require them to learn more complex language skills in academic domains. To a certain extent, 'the language of CALP is the language of academic content areas' (Snow & Brinton, 1997: 8). Involvement of content-area information in CBI classrooms, along with visual/audio materials and objects, contextualizes students' language learning. Language classes therefore have the potential to develop content and cognitive abilities (Leung, 1996: 31).

Like other theories, Cummins' framework of language proficiency has been criticized. A major criticism of Cummins' framework concerns social factors involved in language learning and language use (Edelskey *et al.*, 1983; Genesee, 1984; Wiley, 1996 and Edelsky, 1990, etc.). As argued by Genesee, this framework lacks 'a serious and detailed understanding of the broader social context in which language development and use occur' (1984:26). Contextual support is not the only access to language development, while cognitive ability dose not directly lead to academic language development.

1.4.4 O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) CALLA approach

Cummins' framework discussed in the previous section identifies the developmental relationship between language and academic study. Cognitive demand in academic language learning is noticed by Cummins but a detailed demonstration is yet to be provided. The gap is filled by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) with their cognitive academic language learning approach (CALLA). The approach can be seen as the fourth theoretical support for CBI as it emphasised the significance of learning strategies in content and language integrated learning. A feature of this framework lies in its emphasis on learning strategies.

CALLA is a programme designed initially to develop the academic language skills of students with limited English proficiency. This model includes three curricular and instructional components: content subjects, academic language skills and learning strategies. The rationale of CALLA is that language is a complex skill developed through extensive practice and feedback before reaching an autonomous level (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 191).

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) develop the CALLA model on the basis of the Strategic Teaching Model by Jones *et al.* (1987), which is designed for teachers of native students. The aim of this model is to introduce learning strategies through various content-area tasks. Teachers act as model to demonstrate how learning strategies are used through thinking aloud in the class. At the same time, they act as assistants to help students develop their own learning strategies. Students are expected to study content subjects more effectively with learning strategies acquired through strategic teaching. Language development is scarcely addressed since the model is originally designed for teaching in L1 contexts.

Relating learning strategies to L2 students' language and content development, O'Malley and Chamot design a model of cognitive academic language learning. The

model consists of three components: content area topics, academic language skills and learning strategies in both language and content. Direct teaching in learning strategies is at the centre of CALLA model.

According to Oxford (2001: 166), learning strategies refer to skills in information presentation, interpretation and application. The aim is to make learning more efficient and effective. In the CALLA model, O'Malley and Chamot claim three basic types of learning strategies, respectively, metacognitive, cognitive, and affective strategies. Cognitive strategies relate to thinking processes in learning, metacognitive strategies refer to learners' understanding of the importance of thinking skills, while affective strategies indicates the impact of personal feelings on learning. Strategies in this model are extended by Oxford (2001), who argues that there are six major strategies in language learning. Respectively they are labelled as cognitive, mnemonic, metacognitive, compensatory, affective and social strategies.

Cognitive Strategies help students reinforce existing information and link it to the new information (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, Oxford 2001). Examples of this kind of strategies are: guessing through contextual clues, induction and deduction, taking notes, information re-organization, etc.

Mnemonic Strategies help the learner to memorize new information according to a specific order/string. For example, they can remember a word by grouping it with words containing the same meaning, or relate new information to the resources such as a sound, a gesture, or a page in the book, etc.

Metacognitive Strategies refer to students' understanding about the purpose and significance of learning strategies. They are divided into two types by Oxford (2001: 167-68). In the first type of metacognitive strategy, language learners are viewed as individuals. Therefore, the learners are encouraged to learn with their favourite strategies, which take into account their specific interests, needs, situations, and

personalities. The second type focuses on the learning process in general. Examples of this kind of strategy are planning a study schedule, collecting relevant resources, and setting a clear goal of learning.

Compensatory Strategies are normally used to support meaning negotiation. This kind of skills includes synonyms, gestures, etc. Compensatory strategies may be viewed as cause of incidental language learning or acquisition.

Affective Strategies refer to the learner's feelings and awareness in language learning process and environment including anxiety, anger, feeling of achievement, etc. Not all these so called strategies are facilitative in language learning. As claimed by Oxford (2001: 168), "negative attitudes and beliefs can reduce learners' motivation and harm language learning".

Social Strategies are also advocated by communicative language teaching practitioners. This type of strategies involves social and cultural factors so as to be distinguished from compensatory strategies. Participating in group work and cooperative learning are two examples of social strategies.

The success of strategic instruction is reflected in the way it develops language proficiency in listening (Johnson, 1999), speaking (Dadour and Robbins, 1996), reading (Park-Oh, 1994), and writing (Sano, 1999). According to Oxford, strategy instruction can result in greater use of acquired strategies, reduce anxiety, increase motivation, and even generate new strategies adapted to the individual learner's specific needs and purposes. However, the teaching itself can be challenging. It depends to a large extent on teaching strategies as well as on how many learning strategies are recognized and introduced by the teacher.

The contribution of CALLA to CBI lies in integrative teaching of content knowledge, language skills and learning strategies. The integration aims to produce effective and

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independent learning. As claimed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 210), students use learning strategies to serve their present objectives of developing academic language skills and achieving success in mainstream classrooms. The students' final target is to become autonomous learners in both language and content study. Although neither strategic nor continuous learning is CBI-specific, teachers may found it more practical to introduce and practice learning strategies in CBI classes. A major reason for this is related to the more flexible content curriculum in CBI than in the regular content curricula. In a sense, content topics in CBI classes need to be well sequenced but a full introduction of the content subject is not always a must in CBI. In the CBI programme in WLC (Wuhan Law College, see chapter three), for example, four legal units (See Appendices VII to X) are selected as the content in the CBI classes for a group of law students.

So far, four frameworks are introduced as the theoretical support for CBI. Krashen claimed that only comprehensible input is needed for language learning to occur. Swain's output hypothesis indicates that students should be pushed to practise the target language skills in language learning. By identifying the cognitive demands in L2 content study, Cummins' framework of academic language proficiency points out the importance of cognitive language proficiency required for academic success. Finally, O'Malley and Chamot's CALLA model suggests that second language learning involves complex strategies. Development in these strategies involves and benefits language and content study, although this is not unique to CBI.

1.5 Practical support for CBI

CBI has received profound support from language learning theories. As an approach to language teaching, this approach grows out of positive and negative results of language teaching practice. Three language teaching movements are introduced and discussed in this section as practical supports for CBI. Findings in Immersion programmes imply that students can and should learn a second language during their

study in other academic subjects. The language across the curriculum movement (LAC) suggests that language and content are initially interwoven, and the students should learn the language, either L1 or L2, thought extensive exposure to and actual use of it. The popularity of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) among particular groups of language learners suggests that language learning is learned more effectively when the content involved in language classes meets the students' needs in real life.

1.5.1 Immersion programmes

As a noticeable innovation in L2 education during the last four decades, Immersion programmes emerge with the aim to find a more effective way of learning a second or foreign language (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). The programme is initiated by the assumption that second or foreign languages are learned more effectively when the young learners are immersed in the L2 environment. In other words, the essential access to a target language lies in extensive exposure to the language in a natural communicative setting (Brinton, *et al.*, 1989: 8). In immersion programmes, language teachers work as models of language use, facilitators of language learning, and mediators of subject matter teaching (Burger, *et al.*, 1984).

The first immersion programmes were conducted in Canada in September, 1965. French was used as a second language in teaching regular subject matter, such as mathematics and science (Genesee, 1987). Since then, immersion programmes have been developed in the United States, where alternative forms of immersion have been applied to the teaching of languages including French, German, Spanish, Japanese, and Chinese. Immersion programmes have been successful and therefore popular: immersion students' competence in content subjects is comparable to that of students who learn mainstream through L1, while their receptive language skills, i.e. reading and listening comprehension have reached a native-like level. Immersion students' socio-linguistic competence has also improved. However, these

students showed a low level of grammatical accuracy in language production, i.e. speaking and writing.

According to Genesee (1994), three lessons are to be learned from immersion programmes: firstly, a second language is learned more effectively when it is integrated with content study. In addition, opportunities for using the target language can be beneficial in second language acquisition. As summarized by Swain (1985), immersion students did not develop a high level of grammatical accuracy in L2 speaking and writing because they were not pushed to produce a large amount of L2 output. Finally, an effective curriculum and pedagogy should be carefully designed to integrate language and academic objectives. That is, L2 content teachers should be linguistically sensitive so as to produce comprehensible input. L2 input can be 'incomprehensible noise' if the language and content are not justified to the learners' current level. However, oversimplified language and content may hinder the L2 intake since it fails to raise students' consciousness to the new language structures.

1.5.2 *Language across the curriculum (LAC)*

As another practical support for CBI, the Language across the Curriculum movement (LAC) is initially applied to L1 education in England in the 1970s, under the policy that language education should cross over curricular areas. In this movement, language and content are inter-woven together and all the content subjects involved serve the purpose of language teaching. It is believed that language proficiency is developed through its actual use in content areas.

LAC began with the programmes for reading and writing across the curriculum, which implied a methodological transition from learning to write and learning to read to writing to learn and reading to learn. Four basic tenets of LAC are claimed by Corson (1990):

1. language develops mainly through its purposeful use;

2. learning often involves talking, writing, shaping and moving;

3. learning often occurs through talking, writing, shaping and moving;

4. language use contributes to cognitive development.

<div align="right">(Corson, 1990: 74)</div>

The four tenets of LAC are expanded to second and foreign language education. As suggested by Grenfell (2002: 132), in theory, any language can be taught through any subject. It is on this assumption that LAC is expanded to second and foreign language learning. The LAC movement seems to have a particular impact on language education in many European countries. LAC is thus developed as MLAC (modern languages across the curriculum).

In MLAC, students are encouraged not only to practise the acquired language skill but also to use the language as a tool to get access to new content or linguistic knowledge. In a sense, wide language use is the core of MALC. According to Jurasek (1993:99), the learners need to learn, to think and to live in the language.

1.5.3 *Language for specific purposes (LSP)*

The final language programme introduced in this section is the movement of Language for specific purposes (LSP). As a well-known model in language teaching, the history of LSP can be traced back to the 1960s (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Courses in LSP are normally aimed to meet the language needs of specific student groups. LSP learners are normally adults with working experience or university students with certain language proficiency (Robinson, 1991). The following features are generally identified to describe LSP courses:

1. LSP is goal directed. The language is learned not as linguistic product but as an access to occupational or academic success.

2. The courses are designed according to needs analysis.

3. There is usually a specified time period for the courses.

4. Students are likely to be adults or university students.

5. Students are or will be engaged in similar subject area studies.

(Robinson, 1991)

These features indicate that LSP focuses on who is being taught and what they need to learn. Needs analysis therefore plays a central role. In this sense, LSP is an approach in which the language curriculum is designed on the basis of a specific area of knowledge for specific student groups. As claimed by Sager *et al.* (1980: 69), this special language teaching approach is restricted to communication among specialists in the same or closely related areas.

LSP distinguishes itself with the characteristic, needs, and purposes of its relatively homogeneous learners. Common ground between LSP and CBI lies in the involvement of content materials and real-world application of the language. Since CBI is normally conducted in academic settings, there is considerable overlap between CBI and EAP.

So far, definitions of CBI have been introduced and discussed as well as its theoretical and pragmatic supports. The following two sections are focused on advantages of CBI and potential challenges the approach may encounter.

1.6 Advantages of CBI

Learning knowledge of two areas, i.e. language and content in one programme, i.e. CBI, makes efficiency a widely recognized advantage of the approach (e.g. Snow & Brinton, 1997 and Stryker and Leaver, 1997). Furthermore, the CBI approach is

claimed to enhance students' motivation and increases language learning opportunities. The two advantages jointly meet the learners' need in language learning. Four elements are introduced in this section as advantages of CBI: efficiency, motivation, learner needs and opportunities.

1.6.1   CBI promotes teaching efficiency

The CBI approach generates a content-involved and language-sensitive learning environment by taking into account both students' second language proficiency and their subject matter study. In CBI classrooms, concurrent involvement of language and content area knowledge makes students get 'two for one' (Wesche, 1993: 58).

In CBI classes, language learning is facilitated by language use in various communicative contexts related to the subject matter. That is, language teaching in the CBI approach is shifted from a contextual to an inter-textual perspective (Widdowson, 1993), and from accumulative learning of language rules to intensive study of language use. In this sense, language acquisition becomes a progressive process owing to the coherent content involvement. As argued by Kasper:

> Content-based ESL courses present students with discipline-based material in a meaningful,
>
> contextualized form in which the primary focus is on the acquisition of information. ... ... as
>
> students acquire information through sophisticated linguistic input, they move to more
>
> advanced levels of language processing.
>
> (Kasper, 1997: 310)

In teaching reality, language processing is related to processing content information. During the processing of language and content knowledge through various strategies, there is potential for students to develop cognitive skills. Although none of the three, i.e. language, content and cognitive abilities, is CBI-specific, they jointly contribute to efficiency as a first advantage of the CBI approach. A good CBI

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curriculum therefore leads to a 'three for one' effect.

The enhanced teaching efficiency in CBI classes is not only reflected by how much knowledge and skills are introduced by the teacher but also by how the knowledge and skills are learned by students. Most teachers in traditional language classes feel that their teaching is more likely to resemble 'gardening in a gale' (Hawkins, 1987: 97, cited in Van Lier, 1996: 43): The teachers plant 'tender seedlings' of the target language in the class, which are blown away as soon as the students go out into the corridor and the playground. In this sense, the teaching can hardly be fruitful without the students' forcing themselves to regularly recall what has been introduced in the L2 classes.

Language to which students are exposed in CBI classes may not be as rich as that in general language classes. However, students may receive better quality of exposure-language in CBI classes. In Van Lier's (1996: 45) words, "the learner can make sense of it, is receptive to it, and makes an effort to process it". CBI materials may be initially "inauthentic" when they are selected from commercial textbooks. They become "semi-authentic" when teachers relate these materials to learners' language and content proficiencies through tasks and activities. They can only be "clearly authentic" when the learners use the knowledge and skills gained through these materials in the target settings (Belcher, 2006: 138). In other words, no material is authentic until the authenticity is raised by the teachers and realized by the learners. CBI classes provide opportunities for teachers and students to authenticate the L2 materials and therefore to enhance the teaching and learning efficiency.

1.6.2   CBI enhances students' motivation

Motivation is regarded as important in language learning, if not learning in all subject areas. With respect to second language learning, Corder claims bravely and bluntly that "given motivation, it is inevitable that a human being will learn a

second language if he is exposed to the language data" (1981: 8). Compared with Corder's statement, second language teaching reality is much more complicated. Motivation is a complex concept. In addition, good knowledge about motivation may not be adequate for teachers to motivate their students.

According to Van Lier (1996), motivation involves interplay between innate and extrinsic factors. These factors are categorized as intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The former refers to one's innate psychological needs for competence, relatedness and autonomy, whereas the latter refers to external impact on one's behavior such as rewards, praise and punishment etc. A close link between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation should be regarded as not only an advantage of CBI but also a principle that all CBI courses should follow.

The learners' intrinsic motivation is normally enhanced at the beginning stage of CBI classes due to the freshness of this pedagogical approach. Many students may enjoy the course because of the new teaching format. However, learning is not always a matter of fun. Extrinsic motivation therefore comes into play in order to make learning desirable. CBI enhances the students' extrinsic motivation since it relates language skills to students' current subject study and future academic or professional success. Extrinsic motivation thus supports learning in and outside the classroom. As concluded by Krueger and Ryan,

> The availability of foreign language components in courses from other disciplines promises not only to motivate students to begin language study initially, but also to continue to practice it after completing their formal language study per se and thereby to retain their skills.
>
> (Krueger & Ryan, 1993: 7)

Being interested in the content-related language skills and feeling the need to know how to use them, the students are better motivated to engage in a variety of

content-related tasks. In order to fulfill the tasks, they need to fill the gap between the known and the unknown information. Students take the responsibility to figure out what is known, what they need to know, where and how to find the information and what to do after finding it.

1.6.3   CBI meets learner's needs

Learners' needs have been interpreted from many aspects. According to knowledge and skills required in different periods, some researchers (e.g. Robinson, 1991) define learner needs as present needs and future needs. Some (e.g. Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) view learner needs as different demands recognized from different perspectives. These needs may be considered as requirements of the employment market, inadequate education that has been offered by teachers and knowledge and skills that are desirable for students. In this section, another classification of learner need is introduced, which includes objective needs and subjective needs. The former concerns academic demand in present study and future work. The latter refers to affective and cognitive factors involved in the process of learning.

CBI meets the learner's objective needs (Brindley, 1989; Robinson, 1991; Widdowson, 1981) since it aims language teaching at academic and professional success. In CBI classes, there is introduction of both content knowledge and the relevant skills. Many learning tasks require students to recall and reinforce present and previous subject knowledge and experience. Like many ESP courses, working skills in the content field may also be introduced. In an EFL context such as China, the real needs mainly refer to content-related language skills required by competition for better job opportunities. For example, students with proficient English language skills in their respective subject areas are more likely to be employed by international firms, which normally are related to a high pay rate.

CBI also meets the learner's subjective needs (Brindley, 1989), which are related to

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affective factors and cognitive skills. Activities in CBI classes may take into account students' individual or group interest, their previous experience, as well as the expectations with regard to subject matter study. The affective filter is therefore lowered. Meanwhile, multi-dimensional information addressed in CBI activities encourages students to engage in, interact with and synthesize information from various sources. Learning strategies including cognitive skills are thus acquired by the students. The dual focus on learners' objective and subjective needs makes CBI classes enjoyable and beneficial to students.

1.6 4   CBI provides more opportunities for language use and usage

Focusing language learning on learners' needs, CBI increases opportunities for students to participate in various learning activities (Grabe and Stoller, 1997). As argued by Grabe and Stoller,

> CBI lends itself to student-centered classroom activities; in content-based classrooms, students have opportunities to exercise choices and preferences in terms of specific content and learning activities. Because there are many avenues for exploring themes and topics in content-based classes, student involvement in topic and activity is increased.
>
> (Grabe and Stoller, 1997: 20)

Content-area materials provided in CBI classes expose students to use and usage of the target language, i.e. how the language is used, in their specific field. Language learning is thus meaningful and purposeful. Guided by content knowledge as the focus of the CBI curriculum, students may seek and select supplementary materials according to their own needs and interests. In some CBI courses where the teacher is not the expert in the subject area, students become more independent. They may bring self-selected or self-produced content materials to discuss with other students, and ask the teacher for linguistic help.

With content as the basis of CBI classes, student opportunities are increased due to the dual involvement of the language and the content topics. Learners may take more responsibility for their own study by deciding what to learn and exploring how to learn. Learner autonomy (Tudor, 1997) can therefore be fostered. The CBI approach may also help to create a democratic learning atmosphere by offering an information gap between the teacher and the students. In other words, CBI teachers may not be the expert in both the language and the content fields. They can learn from their students who may contribute valuable materials to the class. In this process, the teacher's role is expanded: they are not only teachers but also learners. In addition to controlling and monitoring classroom activities, they provide guidance and assistance.

It is worth noticing that the CBI approach may offer students more learning and practice opportunities, however, not all the CBI students are willing or able to take advantage of these opportunities. This may be closely related to the students' personality, learning experience and their educational cultural background (e.g. Hu, 2002), which are introduced in section eight of this chapter and sections one and two of chapter three.

To sum up, the advantages of CBI lie in the enhanced motivation for language learning, increased opportunities for language exposure and practice, focused instruction on learners' needs, and improved teaching efficiency resulting from the content and language integration. However, the realization of these advantages depends heavily on a set of factors including teacher education, administrative support, participants' access to relevant materials, etc. A number of challenges and practical issues in the implementation of the CBI approach are discussed in the following section.

1.7 Challenging issues of CBI

The advantages of CBI, especially its relating language study to learners' real-world needs, make it appealing in many language teaching settings. The implementation of CBI requires efforts in a variety of dimensions, and therefore is challenging in practice. Stoller (2004) highlights some common issues encountered by CBI teachers:

1. content selection and curriculum sequencing

2. manipulation of language items driven by content themes and topics

3. the balance between subject content and language structures

4. development of course materials

5. content- and language-area support from faculties

6. cooperation between academic and language instructors

7. institutionalization of CBI

8. course evaluation in terms of students' content and language development, and programme effectiveness.

(Stoller, 2004: 267-68)

Resolutions to the first four challenges on Stoller's list are closely linked to interdisciplinary cooperation between the language and the content departments. This cooperation is a challenging issue in itself, as can be seen from items five and six of Stoller's list. The issue of institutionalization of CBI (item seven) addresses administrative support of the local educational setting and the educational policy of the country as a whole. The last one, i.e. course assessment, may be the most challenging issue since it demands expertise in many different domains and addresses new ways of evaluation. It therefore depends upon a high level of interdisciplinary cooperation.

In addition to Stoller's list, the impact of educational culture on the teacher's role

and the students' involvement in classroom activities is not to be ignored. Due to the specificity and complexity in administration and education in different cultures, this section focuses on three dimensions: teacher development, the issue of teaching and course assessment.

1.7.1 Teacher development

Kasper (1997: 316) for example, argues that the content-based teaching method has a stronger impact on students' performance than does the teacher. However, the teacher's role is not to be ignored. The question as to how much knowledge in the other field should be obtained by the CBI teachers from the language and the content departments remains unanswered. Ideally, a CBI teacher should maintain a dual commitment to the language and the content fields (Hellekjaer & Simensen, 2002). Realistically, some (e.g. Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998) argue that it is enough for the teachers to know about one area while keeping respect and intellectual curiosity for the other area. Others (e.g. Howe, 1993) claim that it might be risky for language specialists to teach the content subject.

In this section, the issue of teacher development concerns two sub issues: teacher resources and teacher education. That is, who should lead CBI classes? What constitutes a qualified CBI teacher?

One major reason for the limited practice of CBI, especially in EFL settings, is the shortage of teacher resources. As argued by Murphey (1997) and Grenfell (2002), there is lack of content teachers who can teach in the target language and language teachers who possess expertise in the given subject matter. Even teachers with degrees in both language and subject fields find it difficult to present content area knowledge with appropriate target language accommodated to students' language and content proficiency (Hellekjaer & Simensen, 2002).

The issue of teacher resources has been hotly discussed. Some researchers (e.g. Kirschner & Wexler, 2002) believe that instructors with language expertise are not able to teach content-based language courses since they lack the qualifications and the authority to act as experts in the field in question (Kirschner and Wexler, 2002: 176). On the other hand, some (e.g. Carson, 2000; Murphy, 1996; Peterson, 1997; etc.) insist that CBI courses should be presented only by language teachers, preferably those with content qualifications, since content-based language instruction is *language* instruction (Peterson, 1997: 158). Other CBI advocates (e.g. Hansen and Hammen 1980: 104) argue that language-subject courses can be provided by either language teachers or language-discipline teams. A recommendable resolution may lie in the collaboration between language and content faculties (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1980; Dudley-Evans & Johns, 1981).

It is important to clarify the roles of the language and the content teachers for effective cooperation in a CBI programme, especially when team-teaching is involved. It is the aim of this section to demonstrate the language teacher's roles as mediator, cooperator and content learner, and the content teacher's roles as subject advisor, curriculum designer and language learner.

1.7.1.1   Language teachers' roles

A standard model of a CBI class normally aims at the students' concurrent mastery of language and content. A CBI course thus may have a similar requirement to a CLIL one. According Rasanen *et al.* (1996), in order for a language teacher to teach a non-language subject through the target language, he/she needs to develop abilities in the following areas,

- subject-specific vocabulary;
- language used in social interaction;
- discourse features (i.e. organization of spoken and written texts, conventions);

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- fluent expression;

- classroom management language.

(Rasanen *et al.*, 1996: 285)

The above mentioned skills are ranked in order of importance. For language teachers, it might be both important and effort-demanding to achieve a good command of content-specific vocabulary and discourse features in the area. Most language teachers may be provided with some content training or the chance of teaching in co-operation with content teachers before or at the beginning stage of teaching a CBI course. This particular experience indicates that language teachers work as co-operator and content learner in most CBI classes.

a)   Language teacher as mediator

Dudley-Evans (2001: 227) describes the language teachers' role in EAP courses as 'to interpret on behalf of the students what the subject teacher meant in his or her lecture or in an examination question'. To perform this role, they may need to consult subject lecturers or relevant academic materials. Dudley-Evans' (2001) argument seems to echo Swales' (1988) teacher-student triangle (see figure 1.2), in which the language teacher acts as an intermediary between the students and the content teachers.
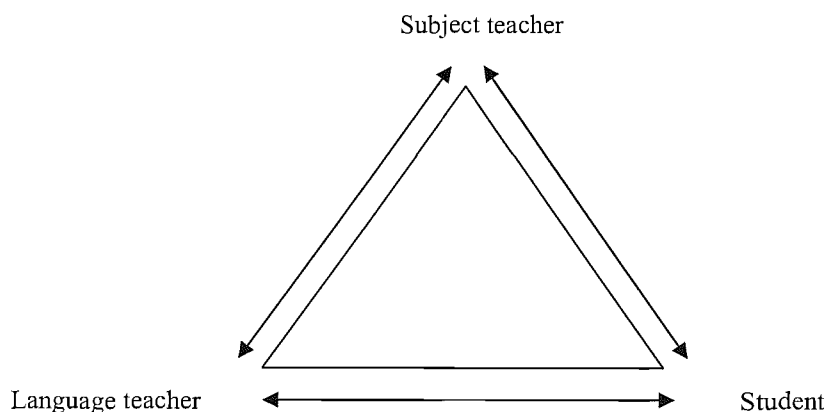
Figure 1.2. Language teacher as intermediary in the teacher-student triangle
(Swales, 1988)

The term intermediary is developed by Gibbons (2003: 249) as mediation. As he argues, the term *mediation* is used to "characterise the linguistic and discourse choices made by teachers in the content-based ESL classroom". The mediation aims to link students' language and content study with the college or university as the micro sociocultural setting and the academic society or professional community as the macro sociolcultural setting.

Gibbons' (2003) view of the language teacher as mediator derives from a sociocultural theory of second language acquisition (SLA). According to this theory, second language learners are neither processors of input nor are they producers of output. They realistically participate in various language activities as speakers and hearers. Their language development is therefore a continual process which grows along with content knowledge, which may be viewed as another continuum.   In a broader view, the continuum might be seen as a process where the learners take advantage of teachers' help, become autonomous, and finally achieve independent language and content competence.

At the centre of Gibbons' (2003) mediation hypothesis is collaborative interaction. In content-based classrooms where team-teaching is involved, the language teacher interacts with the content teacher and the students so as to shorten linguistic and content distance between the teacher and the learners. Since mediation takes place in the form of natural and spontaneous interaction, content knowledge involved in the interaction might not always be limited to the curriculum. Therefore, at a lower level, the language teacher mediates to link the students' current content knowledge and their language abilities. At a higher level, the mediation may lead to broader knowledge and specific language applied to and required by the academic community (Gibbons, 2003: 250).

In CBI classes, there are several approaches to teachers' mediation. As pointed out by Gibbons,

> Teachers mediate language and learning in several ways: mode shifting through recasting, signalling to the students how they can self-reformulate, indicating where a reformulation is needed but handing this task over to the learner, and modelling alternative ways of recontextualising personal knowledge.
>
> (Gibbons, 2003: 267)

It seems that teacher mediation described by Gibbons resembles to a great extent team-teaching that occurs in ESP courses for international students in British universities (Dudley-Evans & Johns, 1981). In these settings, classroom interaction and instruction are conducted by both the language and the content teachers in the target language. The teacher-teacher interaction provides students with rich exposure to the target language, whereas teacher-student interaction provides opportunities for the students to practise the language with proficient speakers. In a sense, the language teacher as mediator helps the students to learn the language by knowing how language makes meaning in different discourse communities.

b)   Language teacher as co-operator in content teaching

It takes a mutual effort from the language and the content teachers to link the learners' linguistic competence to the target academic register. Language teachers should keep updated information about the students' content development through close cooperation with the content teachers. However, not all the content experts are willing to share their pedagogical progress and student portfolios due to the competition for promotion within the department. Requests for content knowledge and student background from the language teacher may also be rejected even if it aims to facilitate students' content development. Due to the lack of trust and confidence in language teachers' personalities and knowledge background, some content teachers may regard language teachers' help as ineffective and unnecessary. Therefore, an effective co-operation may be greatly dependent on a good personal and professional relationship between the language teacher and the content

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department.

It is not unusual to see that content lecturers in many CBI classes are not confident about their target language proficiency, and language experts have to be responsible for most of the pedagogical activities including course design and student assessment (e.g. Brinton *et al*.1987).   However, that is not the result of the CBI approach but the outcome of the lack of co-operation and understanding between the language and the content departments. By encouraging inter-disciplinary co-operation, CBI provides a platform where language and content teachers can appreciate each other's teaching strategies and pedagogical philosophies. Mutual respect may thus be established. In a sense, inter-disciplinary co-operation may help the content and the language teachers to develop a certain degree of expertise in the other area, although great effort is required from both sides.

Co-operating with content teachers not only means that language teachers should participate in pedagogical activities with content lecturers, they also need to be prepared to learn content knowledge.

c)   Language teacher as content learner

Considering the complexity of knowledge and information in content areas, language experts as CBI teachers should always be cautious about conceptual issues in the content area and keep an open mind to content knowledge they have learned. Expressions in content texts might easily be misinterpreted due to limited content knowledge and experience of the language teacher. A good example of this can be found in Howe (1993), where 'of immemorial antiquity', meaning 'before 1189' in a law text, was misunderstood by the language teacher as 'older than any person's memory'.   A safe way of avoiding teaching incorrect content information may be not to omit it but to reinforce the relevant content knowledge before teaching.

The students' expectations of content mastery require language teachers to equip themselves with fundamental knowledge and information in the content area. This does not necessarily mean that language teachers should be content experts. However, nor does it excuse the language teachers when they focus their teaching only on what they feel secure about, i.e. the linguistic forms. The willingness and effort to learn the content knowledge from various sources are vital to language teachers in CBI classes.

The most convenient or direct help might be from the content department. It is reasonably understandable if the content teacher feels reluctant to spare time helping the language teaching; even the language might be content-relevant. Nonetheless, few content teachers will refuse to take their responsibility for delivering content knowledge. Many of them will appreciate the language teachers' help with accurate content knowledge introduction.

1.7.1.2   Content teachers' roles

As shown in figure 1.1 (on page 24), there are stronger and weaker forms of CBI. Content teachers may participate in various CBI classes but not always as the main presenters. Their roles vary in different CBI forms. In strong forms of CBI, where the courses involve a systematic introduction of the content knowledge, they may work as course presenters and curriculum designers. In the weaker forms of CBI, where academic language skills carry more weight and the courses are led by language experts, content teachers may work as subject consultants and language learners.

a)   Content teacher as subject advisor

Similar to their role as subject advisors in the EAP approach, content teachers in CBI contribute clarification of content information as well as precise assessment of students' subject matter development. Content teachers' role as advisors is reflected

in Swales' (1988) triangle (see figure 1.2 on page 74). They provide language teachers with information about students' content background and recommend them relevant content materials. However, the systematic involvement of content knowledge as a thread of the CBI curriculum requires content teachers to participate in curriculum designing. Meanwhile, the language target of the CBI approach as well as the tendency to have one-teacher classrooms means that content teachers should develop competent target language proficiency.

b)   Content teacher as curriculum designer

With the involvement of content knowledge in the CBI approach, the CBI curriculum should keep systematic track of the students' content knowledge. A pure repetition of content knowledge introduced in L1 or L2 content classes can be boring and unchallenging to students. Introducing new content knowledge in a CBI course without considering the students' learning experience in the content area may raise unnecessary difficulties, since content learning is a systematic and developmental process. Both repetition and ignorance of the students' content background may reduce students' activeness and therefore hinder the occurrence of language learning. As suggested by Van Lier (1996: 171), "in order to learn, a person must be active, and the activity must be partly familiar and partly new, so that attention can be focused on useful changes and knowledge can be increased".

In CBI classes, students' heavy workload is due to the new content knowledge and the unfamiliar language as medium of instruction as well as the expected language skills as part of the aim of the CBI approach. The content teachers' expertise is crucial to make a smooth link between the students' old and new content knowledge. Content teachers may also provide valuable pedagogical information on classroom activities by creating appropriate tasks and topics for students to perform and discuss. The involvement of content teachers in CBI does not mean to produce a content-driven curriculum. Its real purpose is to establish a link between the

students' content background and the dually-focused instruction, and therefore to make CBI classes more student-centred.

c)   Content teacher as language learner

The concurrent presence of teachers from the language and the content departments may be confusing and distracting to students (Dudley-Evans, 2001). It may also lose administrative support for financial reasons. This is especially true in less developed countries and the countries where most content teachers are non-native-English speakers. Even in an English-speaking country, where content teachers are most probably native-English speakers, they may need to be linguistically aware in order to make the content teaching comprehensible to the overseas students. These linguistically-sensitive content classes may also bear CBI characteristics if the dual purposes are met.

The CBI approach aims to improve the students' linguistic skills by providing extensive meaningful exposure to the language in a specific content area. This aim cannot be achieved without an increasing use of the language in the content instruction. Content teachers therefore need to develop their own content-related language skills. These skills can be acquired through a variety of sources including attending a language course, learning from materials written in the target language and consulting language experts, etc. However, learning the language with their students in the CBI classroom can also be very effective.

There are mainly three advantages of content teachers as language learners in CBI classes are. First of all, it provides opportunities for content teachers to share language learning experiences with their students. By attending CBI classes as language learners, content teachers may update their own learning. This also helps content teachers to view CBI classes from the learners' perspective and therefore to develop their teaching skills. Secondly, it facilitates inter-disciplinary cooperation by

increasing mutual understanding and respect. During the process of playing the students' role, content teachers may build further understanding and appreciation of the language teachers' workload, teaching style and teaching philosophy. A third advantage of content teachers as language learners lies in the fact that it adds a democratic environment to the triangular relationship (see figure 1.2) between the language teacher, the subject teacher and the students. As a language learner, the content teacher may need to participate in activities in CBI classes and complete homework afterwards. This may help students to understand the equality between them and their teachers in the face of unknown knowledge. Owing to the equal status in the classroom, the content teacher may exchange language learning strategies and experiences with the students.

While acting as language learners in the CBI classes, content teachers should also bear in mind the fact that they are CBI teachers. Their role is to facilitate language teaching and encourage language learning. This means that content teachers should set a brave example when questions need to be asked or answers need to be given by students. However, both the language and the content teachers should contribute less when students are competent and confident to perform tasks. The practice opportunities are more important to students than they are to content lecturers.

To sum up, both language and content teachers should develop their knowledge in the other field. Language experts may need to develop expertise in and to familiarize themselves with some other subjects (Blue, 1981: 62-64). It might be hard for them to be an expert in a subject area. Due to the variety of students' subject matter, it is nearly impossible for language teachers to develop a high level of expertise in all content areas. However, they can familiarize themselves with some relevant content knowledge by eliciting information from students or consulting subject matter teachers. As argued by Blue,

It can be a useful exercise for the student to explain the subject matter to the teacher, who

will ideally have sufficient background knowledge at least to be able to help the learner

define the linguistic categories and analyse his own linguistic needs.

<div align="right">(Blue, 1981: 64)</div>

1.7.1.3 Teacher education

Another sub-issue concerning CBI teacher development is 'what elements constitute

a qualified CBI teacher'. Although language instructors may be preferable in

content-based *language* instruction, the function of CBI teachers is not restricted

merely to linguistic knowledge delivery. As argued by Chamberlain (1980: 103), the

content-driven curriculum in CBI courses requires language teachers to learn about

the subject or subjects, and take an interest in them although these teachers may not

like the subject(s).

It is further claimed by Blue (1988) that teachers should introduce learning skills

and language abilities across the disciplines (EGAP, i.e. English for general

academic purposes) as well as skills in a specific subject (ESAP, i.e. English for

specific academic purposes). Therefore, language teachers who do not hold in-depth

content expertise should maintain a working knowledge of the related subject

matter(s), and be able to provide appropriate language support at the same time.

This working knowledge can be illustrated as in table 1.4.

Subject-Specific Content Knowledge	Subject-Specific Pedagogical Knowledge
Subject-specific language knowledge L1	Pedagogical language knowledge L1
Subject-specific foreign language knowledge L2 **Foreign-Language Competence**	Pedagogical language knowledge L2 **Foreign-Language Pedagogical Knowledge**

Table 1.4 Knowledge framework for CBI teachers (Hardy *et al.*, 2002: 189)

As can be seen in table 1.4, to compose a competent CBI knowledge framework, the language teacher should possess proficient content-specific knowledge presented in both L1 and L2. The L1 is used to facilitate meaning comprehension when students' target language proficiency is either inadequate or unavailable. Content-related L2 knowledge is categorised by Snow *et al.* (1989) as content-obligatory language and content-compatible language. Content-obligatory language refers to language that must be used to understand content information presented in L2. It includes subject matter terminologies, subject-specific classroom discourse, and subject-specific knowledge etc. Content-compatible language refers to language that can be taught and practised in CBI classes. Elements in this kind of language may not be obligatory since other language options are available or necessary. At the same time, CBI teachers are required to possess pedagogical L1 and L2 knowledge. The former is used to clarify content information in students' mother tongue, whereas the latter is used to help students resolve problems in L2 learning.

The knowledge framework in table 1.4 implies a demand of a high level of L1 and L2 proficiency. In CBI classes, the curriculum addresses teachers' content

knowledge, language proficiency, and pedagogical expertise. Hellekjaer and Simensen's (2002: 185) skill list can be recommended in CBI teacher education (see table 1.5).

Subject-matter knowledge	Second/Foreign language proficiency	Pedagogical requirements
• Subject-specific terminology • Subject-specific classroom discourse • Knowledge of the features of subject -specific texts	• Advanced oral and written proficiency • Language for subject terminology and discourse features • Language for classroom management	• Theories in language acquisition and content study • Pedagogical knowledge in language and subject matter • Teaching practice

Table 1.5 Skill list for CBI teacher education

The skill list indicates that a successful CBI course involves inevitably cooperation and collaboration between the language and the content teachers as a team (Dudley-Evans & Johns, 1981). In addition to in-depth knowledge of content and language, a qualified CBI teacher should also maintain other factors for effective education, for example, teaching techniques, experience, and attractive personalities.

1.7.1.4 Principles for teacher development for CBI

A successful CBI course depends not only on the teachers' professional abilities but also on their attitude towards the approach. This section proposes a few principles for CBI. However, they should not necessarily be viewed as CBI- specific.

a)   Students are responsible for their own study, but the teacher should be willing to provide assistance and be capable of doing so.

In the CBI progamme, students are encouraged to be responsible for their study by selecting materials and solving content- or language-related problems in their own

ways. Teachers even let the students decide the coverage of their homework.

Students' responsibility for their own study, however, does not relieve the teachers of their role as assistants in the students' overall development. It is true that a language teacher should not attempt to be a "pseudoteacher of the subject matter" (Robinson, 1991: 87). However, the risk of introducing inaccurate content information can be reduced through team-teaching or other forms of inter-disciplinary co-operation. Teachers may allow students to be critical about any information presented in the CBI classes and encourage them to explore the information through various resources. This is also a process in which language teachers develop their knowledge in the content field.

While providing students with information and advice for effective learning, it is also essential for teachers to reflect on their academic and pedagogic capability and attitude. They need to pay attention to new approaches and keep an open mind to criticism of the approaches they have applied in the classroom. Self-improvement is critical, although it can be challenging in most cases.

b)   Authentic materials need to be used in the classes, but it is the teachers' responsibility to authenticate the materials.

A significant role of CBI teachers is to authenticate the materials. Materials used in CBI classes can be regarded as inauthentic not only because these materials are written in L2. Students' needs and their educational background should also be taken into account when teachers select the materials. Meanwhile, students should be encouraged to seek materials from various sources.

It is on the basis of precise needs analysis that teachers select the CBI materials. However, it requires further effort for the teachers to authenticate them. Needs analysis enables the teachers to know what the students need to learn, while

authentication addresses the students' genuine belief that they are doing what they need or want to do. Authenticity is, as stated by Van Lier (1996: 13, italics original), "the *result* and the *origin* of awareness and autonomy".

c)   The CBI approach contains motivational factors, but the effectiveness of these factors depends on how motivating the teacher is.

The CBI approach aims to enhance the students' motivation in language learning by involving meaningful content materials in language classes. However, teachers' effort is needed to motivate the students: an approach can be motivational but the students might not be motivated. In other words, motivational and motivating are two different concepts. The former is related to choosing appropriate teaching method and materials, the latter values the appropriate application of the method and materials. In order to motivate their students in the CBI classes, it is important for teachers to understand the inter-dependence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

According to Deci *et al.* (1991: 328, cited in Van Lier, 1996: 110), "intrinsically motivated behaviors are engaged in for their own sake – for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from their performance". By contrast, extrinsically motivated behaviors are related to the outer world reward and self-evaluation of the behaviors, which are affected by a variety of external factors. Based on the understanding of the interdependence of the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the teachers should strive to make the in-class activities enjoyable for the students. At the same time, they should also make the students realize that learning is not always fun. Effort is demanded for any type of studying, especially in academic settings.

Needs analysis again plays a central role in the students' motivation. The teachers need to know about the students' objective needs (Tudor, 1997) by analyzing information provided by the content expert or relevant data. They also need to be aware of the significance of an ongoing analysis of the learners' subjective needs

(Tudor, 1997), including the learners' self-evaluation of their language and content abilities, recognition of target situations and their expectation from the CBI classes.

1.7.2 The issue of teaching

Related to teacher development, teaching is another challenging issue in CBI classes. The CBI approach distinguishes itself from other language approaches by a dual commitment to language and content. In this section, we shall focus on teaching strategies and the team-teaching approach. The former concerns strategic learning and teaching, while the latter addresses the responsibilities of the content and the language specialists in integrated courses.

1.7.2.1 Teaching strategies

In CBI classes, the target language is used to introduce subject-specific information and relevant activities. Therefore, the CBI approach is a form of contextualized language learning and language-supported content-area communication. The difficulty and complexity in content-related language activities, however, generate communicative stress and cognitive load (Nunan, 1989 and Robinson, 2001). It is therefore the teachers' responsibility to help and encourage students to learn how to learn through the process of learning. This can be realised through strategic teaching of learning strategies. Larsen-Freeman (2000) proposes a number of principles in CBI, by which she suggests the teacher's role in building the teaching on students' previous experience and scaffolding the linguistic content (2000: 140). These two principles can be summarized as follows.

The first principle in a CBI programme is 'guiding rather than giving'. In CBI classrooms, the cognitive and linguistic demands in content materials and tasks require CBI teachers to guide the learner with 'contextual clues' rather than provide them directly with content or language knowledge (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 140). The

persistent use of guiding clues will eventually reduce the boredom of content texts and difficulties in language learning, and foster students' thinking skills. With the guidance provided in CBI classes, students develop cognitive skills and acquire learning strategies, which help them to be autonomous and independent learners.

As a second principle, 'exemplification rather than simplification', concerns technical use of the target language. In CBI classes, the target language is sometimes simplified by teachers to facilitate content comprehensibility. However, the simplified language does not always guarantee accurate interpretation and comprehension. Moreover, the linguistic modification deprives students of sufficient exposure to the authentic content-specific target language. In addition, the direct decoding of the target language reduces learners' cognitive engagement in content-language integrated learning. Exemplification generates better comprehension without sacrificing linguistic difficulty and authenticity. On the one hand, examples provided by CBI teachers allow the learners to recall and reinforce content and language knowledge they have previously acquired. On the other hand, students build up their competence, confidence and learning interest during the process of overcoming linguistic difficulties and utilizing related cognitive and content skills.

The CBI approach requires language teachers to develop their content knowledge, while content experts develop their language sensitivity. At the same time, they all need to maintain and make the best use of their respective expertise. According to Strevens (1988), teachers are neither prevented from using their linguistic proficiency, nor are they required to become content specialists; though a profound knowledge background in both language and content is ideal and favourable for CBI classes. To achieve this goal, team-teaching, which is introduced in the next section, provides an effective, though by no means exclusive approach.

1.7.2.2 Team teaching

Teachers' concurrent language and content competence is desirable in CBI classes due to students' dual commitment to the two domains. Interdisciplinary cooperation serves as an important condition when a CBI course is led by a content expert or a language teacher. To a certain extent, the language teacher can only deliver the course effectively with active co-operation of subject teachers.

As ESP researchers and practitioners, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) identify three levels of cooperation between the language and the content departments: co-operation, collaboration and team-teaching. On the first level, i.e. co-operation, the language teacher contacts the content teacher for information about students' learning experience in the content area, expectations of the content department, the use of content-related tasks, and so on. On the second level, i.e. collaboration, the language and the content teachers work together outside the classroom to design a collaborative curriculum. Subject topics, classroom activities and course assessment are decided during the collaboration. Team-teaching, as the highest level, involves the dual presence of the language and the content teachers in the same classroom.

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), a key condition of successful team-teaching is the clearly defined roles of content lecturers and language teachers. Both of them should base the teaching on their respective expertise while making an effort to gain information in the other field.

Team teaching is also a key to successful CBI classes (Stoller, 2004). In CBI classrooms, language teachers work as linguistic assistants, content information collectors and content learners. As linguistic assistants, they provide explicit or implicit instruction on language form; hence they facilitate content-related communication. As content information collectors, they contact content experts in order to receive a wide range of content area information including the students'

content development. In order to possess a 'working knowledge' in the content area, language teachers engage in a systematic study by attending content classes, consulting content experts and even learning from their students. As a result, they develop a good understanding of students' content needs.

Team-teaching can be challenging since it addresses cross-disciplinary support and administrative policy as well as interpersonal relationship between the teachers in the team.

First of all, team-teaching may cause some change in the language and content curriculum. Much, if not all, of the CBI curriculum is content-driven (Widdowson, 1993), which means language teaching is based on a coherent and systematic introduction of content knowledge. Some training offered by the content department, if possible, can be very helpful. At the same time, content teachers need to adjust the curriculum so that content knowledge introduced in CBI classes is not merely a repetition of what the students have learned in the L1 or L2 mainstream classes.

Secondly, interdisciplinary cooperation may add to the workload of language and content teachers. For example, language teachers need to spend much time learning subject matter knowledge, collecting related information and preparing an integrative teaching plan, etc. The work cannot be completed without content teachers' help. Concerning the time issue in team-teaching, Johns and Dudley-Evans (1980: 21) suggest that language teachers should make the maximum use of content assistance within the minimum consulting time. Some administrative, especially financial, support may encourage effective team-teaching.

Administrative policy may provide extrinsic motivation for the content and the language teachers to co-operate. However, as argued by Chamberlain (1980: 103), team-teaching is rather a question of attitude than of abilities. It requires willingness and team spirit. Effective team-teaching may result from positive professional and

personal relationships between the teachers in the team.

1.7.3   The issue of assessment

A question that CBI advocates have to answer is its effectiveness, which addresses the issue of assessment in integrated classes (Snow and Brinton, 1997 and Stoller, 2004). Should the course be evaluated according to students' language development? Or should content mastery be the sole standard? If the integrative approach is to be judged, should both language experts and content teachers have their say? Qualitative approaches such as interviews, students' performance observations, as well as self-evaluation made by teachers and learners may provide data about the effectiveness of CBI courses. However, these data may not be as straightforward as a traditional pen-and-paper exam.

Three criteria of assessment are recommended in this section. However, they can only be used as a guide to rather than methodologies of the CBI assessment. First of all, with regards to learning and thinking strategies involved in the approach, assessment should not only aim to check what the students are taught, but also what they should have learned. For example, it is easy to test whether the student knows the definition of a concept in the content area. However, much more work needs to be done to evaluate the student's ability in interpreting and utilizing concepts in specific academic and linguistic contexts. The CBI teacher or test designer may ask students to illustrate and demonstrate the concept in their own words in the target language, and apply the concept to the subject context as well as other possible contexts. This kind of tests helps to solve the problem of assessment in CBI. However, subjectivity in marking may affect the validity of the test result.

The second criterion refers to multi-dimensional use of test items. As argued by Cohen (1991: 488), "an item may test one point ... or several points .... Likewise, a given objective may be tested by a series of items". The teachers or test designers

should bear in mind that a pen-and-paper test is not the only form of assessing students' general competence. Talking with the students, marking their homework, observing their in-class performance may provide valuable information about students' development. It is also a normal case that a piece of language, written or spoken, may reflect students' multi-dimensional progress or deficit. For example, a poorly accomplished essay in CBI classes may result from less advanced language skills, conceptual misunderstanding of content knowledge, and/or lack of presentation strategies.

Finally, assessment should not be only conducted at or as the end of teaching. This is because the purpose and value of tests and assessment are not only to evaluate learning as a result of teaching, but also to evaluate teaching itself. Learning is a developmental progress, so is teaching. As pointed out by Canale (1984, cited in Cohen, 1991: 493), a good assessment should bear not only validity, reliability and practicality, but also acceptability and feedback potential. Students may fail or succeed in one test for various reasons. Frequent and multi-dimensional tests may provide updated information about learners' needs at different stages, which can be applied to guide teaching practice.

A framework of assessment suggested by Short (1993) seems to satisfy the above mentioned three criteria. The framework is shown in table 1.6. The philosophy behind this framework is that the intricate relationship between language and content, as well as the integrated language-content approach, calls for an integrated framework of assessment. Variable tools and clarified objectives are two features of the framework.

HOW								
	Checklist inventory	Anecdotal record, teacher observation	Student self-evaluation	Portfolios	Performance manipulative	Written essays, reports	Oral reports	Student interviews
W Problem solving								
Content area skills								
H Concept comprehension								
Language use								
A Communication skills								
T Individual behavior								
Group behavior								
Attitudes								

Table 1.6 Short's (1993) Framework of assessment in CBI

According to Short's framework, students' abilities in CBI courses are assessed according to their competence in problem solving, content-area knowledge, concept comprehension, language use, communication strategies, classroom behaviours as individuals and group members and their attitude. To achieve these assessment objectives, a variety of measures are suggested: teacher-generated skill checklists, students' self-evaluations, teachers' observations on students' in-class performance, oral and written reports, etc.

These measures generate a natural and less-stressful environment for teachers and students to jointly evaluate the effectiveness of the CBI approach from their own perspectives. It is important to clarify that tools in this framework need to be used carefully and selectively according to different objectives.

1.8 CBI in higher education in China

CBI superficially leads people to believe that academic success derives simply from language-content integration. The cultural dimension is missing or not sufficiently

noticed. Teachers who share the same cultural background with their students may develop teaching techniques on some anecdotal cases, the nature of their culture being taken for granted. Foreign teachers stick with their own teaching methodologies because cultural factors are too complex and deep-rooted for them to accommodate, or because they wish to bring some fresh air by introducing their teaching styles to a different culture.

Awareness of cultural issues is particularly valuable since it provides a common ground for lecturers and students to understand each other. Domestic teachers may improve their teaching by reflecting on virtues and limits of traditional approaches. Foreign lecturers, through cultural information, may understand why students from different cultural settings behave and react differently in their classes.

There are two components of this section: Chinese educational culture and the history of CBI in China. The former helps to establish a basic understanding of some factors in education in China. The latter provides a historical review of content and language integration in the country.

1.8.1 Education in Chinese culture

Flowerdew and Miller (1995) developed a framework for L2 lecturers to understand their students' learning behaviour in the City University of Hong Kong. The framework consists of ethnic culture, local culture, academic culture and disciplinary culture. Ethnic culture includes social-psychological factors that affect the behaviour of teachers and students. Local culture refers to features in the local setting which may be familiar to the native teachers and students but not to the foreign lecturers. These features include learning environment, physical location of the setting, administrative system and interdisciplinary relationship, etc. Academic culture provides information about the value of a particular academic subject, peoples' understanding of its contribution to the society, and so on. Disciplinary culture

relates to norms, theories and terms contained within a specific discipline. The purpose of this section is to provide a general understanding of Chinese educational culture.

1.8.1.1 Teacher as academic authority

Chinese educational culture is influenced by Confucianism. The role of the teacher is highly respected. For Confucius, the teacher is as noble and respectable as one's spiritual leader. It is widely accepted that the teacher should be treated as the heaven, the earth, the emperor and the parents. There is an old saying that 'a teacher for one day is a father for the whole life'.

Chinese students are normally seen to hand in their homework to their teachers with both hands and with a slight bow. It is widely accepted that the students should stand when talking to the teacher with their hands at the back or on both sides of the body. The teacher stands for spiritual leader and academic authority to the students. The role of the teacher is identified as 'to propagate doctrines, to deliver knowledge and to resolve doubts'. Therefore, as Flowerdew and Miller (1995) argue, Chinese students rarely question the knowledge delivered by their teachers.

1.8.1.2 Highly motivated academic achievement

Academic success is highly valued in traditional Chinese culture and remains a significant influence on students' motivation. In old times, academic achievement of an individual was seen as a means to glorify the whole family member including the dogs and chickens. It is widely believed that the possibility of academic success can be enhanced by the political and financial condition of the family. For most students from less developed areas and those without a strong family background, higher education is the only path to a desirable lifestyle.

In this type of cultural setting, students have a very high instrumental motivation to learn for a good job or a sense of achievement.

1.8.1.3 Learning as a process of knowledge receiving

Being influenced by the previous two factors, most Chinese students play the role of receivers during the process of learning. Diligence is regarded as the most important factor for academic success. Many students spend most of the time learning almost everything in the course books. Rather than selecting the information that is valuable, students are encouraged to get as much information as possible by the motto 'every page-turning is beneficial'.

It is unusual for students to question what is written in the books or what is said by their teachers. For most of them, learning is a process of receiving knowledge, although the knowledge they have learned may or may be not used in their future career.

1.8.1.4 Learning as a process of thinking

Although critical thinking, i.e. questioning what to learn and how, is not emphasised in traditional Chinese culture, teachers seem to encourage independent and cautious thinking. Students are required to complete their homework with no copying and little discussion with their peers.

Cautiousness is highly valued in Chinese culture. It is regarded as wise to 'think three times before acting' (here three means many). As commented by a lecturer in the United States:

American students start to answer a question before they know what they are going to say. Chinese students wait until they are sure of what they are going to say before they speak. That makes the American professors really mad.

(Flowerdew & Miller, 1995: 357)

In fact, not only the American or western professors are frustrated with their silent Chinese students. Chinese teachers also struggle when they wait for answers and questions. Most of them do not get an answer when they ask if the students have any problems in learning the subject. Some students keep quiet because they do not know where to start since they have so many questions to ask. Some feel afraid of losing face by asking stupid questions. Some respect their teachers so much that they tend to find the answer themselves rather than wasting the teachers' time. Some may turn to other fellow students since it is an easier way with less pressure. Some may not bother since the class is over and they just want to have a break.

The four features in this section are by no means exhaustive. They reveal a small part of educational culture in China, which is changing every day with the development of the country herself. The information in this section is expected to draw the teachers' awareness to cultural factors when developing their teaching strategies.

1.8.2 CBI in China: a historical review

According to Brinton and her colleagues, early CBI programmes were introduced in China during 1980 and 1985. The approach was conducted in some educational centres as a joint endeavour of University of California, Los Angeles and three Chinese universities in Beijing and Guangzhou (Brinton *et al.*, 1989: 77). Bearing in mind that CBI refers to an approach in which a target language is used as medium to teach other subject matters, however, CBI started to exist in Chinese educational settings from the time of the Foreign Affairs Movement in the 1860s. It is the purpose of this section to provide a historical review of CBI in China between the

1860s and the 1890s, as well as a recent discussion of the students' and the teachers' reaction to CBI courses started since the 1980s.

1.8.2.1   CBI in China during the Foreign Affairs Movement (the 1860s to the1890s)

English language teaching started in China in the mid nineteenth century during the Ching Dynasty (Dzau, 1990, and Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). It was part of the educational movement in the Foreign Affairs Movement (Yang Wu Yun Dong, as it is called in Chinese) between the 1860s and 1890s. Foreign schools were established during this period. Content experts from all over the world were invited to teach in their own languages. Western mode of instruction was also introduced. The theme of the Foreign Affairs Movement (FAM) in the educational field is the teaching of 'western languages, western techniques, western administration and western arts' (Xia, 1992). Teaching modes, teaching materials, teacher resources and student population, as well as the settings are introduced as follows. The introduction shows that foreign language education in these three decades helps to establish a prototype of CBI in China.

a)   Educational settings

During FAM, over 30 schools were established for advanced education in western language, science and military technologies. Among these schools, the most famous three are the Capital School of Languages (Jingshi Tongwen Guan, as it is called in Chinese) founded in 1862, Beiyang Western School (Beiyang Xixue Xuetang, as called in Chinese) founded in 1895 and the Nanyang Public School of Nanyang (Nanyang Gong Xue, as called in Chinese) founded in 1896.   The Capital School of Languages is known as today's Beijing University. It was the first language school in China. Beiyang Western School was re-named as Beiyang University in 1896. It was the first university in Chinese history, and now known as Tianjin University. Finally, Nanyang Public School was then developed into five Jiaotong Universities in Beijing,

Shanghai, Xi'an, Chengdu in mainland China and XinZhu in Taiwan. Teaching and administration in the latter two schools followed an American mode when they were established.

Another school under the powerful influence of FAM is the School of Tsinghua, which now enjoys world fame as Tsinghua University. The school was established in 1911. English-medium instruction was the tradition of this school. The original aim was to prepare students for academic courses in the universities in the United States (http: //www.news.tsinghua.edu.cn).

b)   Teaching modes

Integration of language and content teaching during FAM experienced a process from a language-oriented approach to an adjunct mode. At the initial stage, teaching in FAM schools aimed to provide the government with interpreters and translators in various content fields. However, this was not always the case. Foreign languages were used as medium in content classes in South China during the same period. For example, in a school named Tang Yi Ju, run by the bureau of navigational affairs in Mawei, Fujian Province, English and French lessons were provided concurrently with content subjects such as shipbuilding and engine designing, etc.

With the further development of diplomacy and foreign trade, increasing attention was paid to natural science and military technology. Foreign scholars in chemistry, astronomy, calculus and shipbuilding, etc. were invited to teach in their own languages including French, Russian, German and English. Some language courses were offered to help students understand the L2 subject matter classes. This teaching mode is similar to Brinton *et al.*'s adjunct model. Content learning carries more weight in teaching. As claimed by Ferguson (cited in *The History of Jiaotong University*, 1986), who was once the administrator of Nanyang Public School, the (English) teaching in Nanyang Public School was not to encourage the mastery of

(English) language, but to facilitate students' reading and writing in their (content) study.

c)   Teaching Materials

Since most content subjects during FAM were new to the traditional Chinese system, there was hardly any content teaching material written in students' L1. Two types of content materials were brought by foreign scholars: original content course books produced for students in western countries and content materials developed by content experts in a foreign language to Chinese students.

In Nanyang Public School, for example, all the teaching materials used for high school and college-level education, including reference books, were imported from the United States. Materials for English language courses were the original course books used in the United Kingdom. As argued by two American professors, Sheldon and Vanderbreak, who taught Electrical Engineering and Civil Engineering in Nanyang Public School, the four years of study in Nanyang Public School provided a smooth access for Chinese students to receive further (Master's degree) education in the United States (*The History of Jiaotong University*, 1986).

Some teacher-developed materials were also used for university level education in Nanyang Public School. Examples of this kind of materials are *Materials of Construction* and *Experiments in the Material Testing Laboratory* composed by Professor Pulver and *Experiment Instruction in Electrical Measurements and Dynamo-electric Machinery* and *Notes on D.C. Machines* written by Professor Sheldon and Professor Thompson. Domestic professors also took part in the development of course materials. However, these materials were also written in English as a foreign language to students, for example, *Notes on Engineering Chemistry* by Professor Xu Mingcai, and *Railway Mechanical Engineering* by Professor Yong etc.

d)   Teacher resources and student population

During FAM, most teachers were visiting scholars from the western countries such as France, Russia and the United States. They taught language courses and academic subjects in their own languages. High payment was one of the main attractions to the foreign scholars. There was a great difference in the salary between domestic and foreign teaching staff. In the Capital School of Languages, for example, foreign lecturers were paid over 10 times more than domestic teachers (Xia, 1992).

At the beginning stage of FAM, as described previously, language was the main purpose in most modern schools. Therefore, only young learners under the age of fifteen and with high level intelligence were selected to study in language schools. Thirty teenage learners were sent by the government to study in the United States every year between 1872 and 1875. With the increasing cognitive demands of content study in the integrative classes, the age of learners was expanded to twenty, and later to over thirty (Xia, 1992). These students later became nationally and internationally well-known for their excellence in the field of foreign language education and other academic domains.

It can be seen that at the early stage of content-based teaching in China, most CBI teachers were native speakers of the target language. The language was learned during the process of the subject matter study, and eventually used as a tool for academic and professional achievement.

When the advocates of FAM lost their political power, foreign language teaching and the employment of foreign lecturers encountered a sharp decline. The condition remained with little change until the open policy of the Chinese government in the late 1970s.

1.8.2.2 The wave of CBI since the 1980s

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, some education centres were established as a joint endeavour of University of California, Los Angeles and three Chinese universities in Beijing and Guangzhou (Brinton *et al.*, 1989: 77). A number of visiting scholars as native English speakers were invited to teach the language and subject matter courses. CBI models were thus introduced into the Chinese educational system.

These models brought some fresh air in language education in China since some content knowledge including western culture were introduced and integrated through the CBI approach. However, much effort was needed for effective team-teaching. As commented by Brinton *et al.* (1989: 83), "the main burden for maintaining the effectiveness of the teams has fallen to the American teachers. The Chinese teachers have not been entirely equal partners on the team". Brinton and her co-workers attribute the Chinese teachers' inactive and inadequate involvement to lack of language confidence and lower payment compared with the American experts.

Cultural and economic factors should be considered as the main reasons for the Chinese teachers' modest participation in the team. These factors are further explained in the following three paragraphs.

Chinese teachers, no matter how high their English language level is, may not consider themselves linguistically proficient when compared with American teachers. They may play the role of learners rather than teachers or partners especially when the courses focus more on language skills. Even as learners, these Chinese teachers may not have as much practice opportunity as the students. According to educational culture in China, teachers should know more than students. Therefore, it is regarded as losing face if the teachers make mistakes in class. Chinese teachers may be more cautious when they regard themselves as models of teachers in the country.

Different economical treatment between the American and the Chinese teachers may be another reason for their unequally shared workload. Although the foreign teachers may not have been paid ten times more than their Chinese colleagues in the 1980s, their salary was much higher than the normal income standard in China. At that time, China was not as developed as in the twenty-first century. However, the Chinese government had to pay reasonably high salaries to teachers from developed countries so they can keep a similar living standard as in their own countries.

There has been an enormous change after nearly three decades. The world has witnessed rapid political and economic development in China. English has received an increasing importance due to its wide use in international communication, so that English language teaching is now much more use-oriented (Hu, 2002). There is a stronger link between English learning and academic success.

1.8.2.3   CBI in the twenty-first century

Formal English language education starts in the third year of primary education and English is learned as an independent subject. While traditional grammar-translation remains the main approach to language learning, the language classes in primary and intermediate settings tend to be more communicative. That means students are regarded as the centre of education and they need more opportunities to practise the language. There is increasing popularity of language and content integration in further (i.e. colleges) and higher (i.e. universities) education in China. English for specific purposes and English-medium subject teaching are the two main forms.

In 2001, an official announcement on English-medium subject matter instruction was made by the Ministry of Education in China (document No. 4 of the Ministry of Education, China). According to the official report, English-medium instruction should be conducted in mainstream classrooms, especially in highly technical subjects, such as bio-technology, information technology and those in the financial

and legal fields. It is expected that in three years time, up to ten per cent of university subject courses are to be taught through the medium of English.

CBI in higher level education in China is introduced in chapter three as a general background of the case study of CBI in Wuhan Law College. The introduction is from three aspects: course materials, teachers' preparation and the participants' reaction.

Summary

It has been the aim of this chapter to develop a thorough understanding of CBI before the effectiveness of the approach in further education in China is evaluated as the final purpose of this research project.

The first section of this chapter introduces a collection of definitions of CBI from various aspects. Some definitions focus on the intertwining relationship between content and language (e.g. Mohan, 1986). Some locate the concept in school settings, where content is referred to as subject matter in the regular curriculum (e.g. Snow and Brinton, 1997). Some view the concept of CBI as rather complex (e.g. Stryker and Leaver, 1997). There also exists a viewpoint that CBI leads the learners from learning language for its own sake to using the language as a way of gaining access to subject information (e.g. Crandall and Kaufman, 2002).

A working definition of CBI applying to the CBI programme at WLC is that CBI is an approach in which the teaching is focused on a subject matter. The target language is the main medium of instruction, while L1 is used to facilitate classroom teaching and communication. During the course, students are expected to develop their content-related target language proficiency and to achieve academic success.

The dual involvement of language and content in CBI classes addresses distinctions

between CBI and other language and content integrated approaches. An in-depth discussion about the links and differences between CBI and EAP, L2 content teaching, bilingual education is conducted as the second and the third sections of this chapter. There is also a discussion of methodology, including grammar-translation and task-based approach. The discussion points to the working definition of CBI in this chapter: language and content are the dual focus of the approach, both L1 and L2 may be used as the medium of instruction in CBI classes.

As an approach supported by many fundamental theories and practices in language education (see sections four and five in this chapter), CBI has many advantages (see section six). The main advantages of this integrative approach lie in the enhanced motivation for language learning, increased opportunities of language exposure and practice, focused instruction on learners' needs and improved instructional efficiency resulting from integrated learning. The most distinctive advantages of CBI may be its strength in enhanced student motivation and practice opportunities. The dual involvement of language and content in CBI also encounters considerable challenges in reality. Section seven of this chapter introduces eight challenging issues suggested by Stoller (2004). These issues are summarised as problems in teacher development, teaching methods, course materials and assessment.

The last section of this chapter provides a historical review of CBI as well as some educational culture in China. It is hoped that the introduction provide a fundamental background for a further discussion of the advantages and challenges of CBI through a case study at WLC.

Chapter 2   Methodology

Introduction

It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the methodology applied to my research project. As argued by Bell (1999), research objectives decide the particular methodology used in a research project. Therefore, I shall recall my research questions before the discussion of the research methods.

Six questions are to be tackled and answered in and after my fieldwork. Respectively, they are as follows:

1. Is CBI an appropriate methodology for WLC as a further education college and, by extension, for other specialist further education/colleges in China?
2. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' EFL proficiency?
3. How and how much do CBI courses contribute to WLC students' content mastery?
4. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' cognitive skills?
5. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from content teachers in WLC?
6. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from other language teachers in WLC?

Among these six questions, the first one is the core of my research project. It is to be answered on the basis of the results of the other five questions. Questions 2 to 4 aim to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI on WLC (Wuhan Law College) students' linguistic, academic and cognitive development. Answers to questions 5 and 6 may reveal the impact of CBI on language and content teachers in WLC.

These questions derive from my attempt to introduce the CBI approach to college

level education in China. According to my teaching experience in Wuhan Law College in China, students are more enthusiastic in EFL learning when some law information is integrated in language classes. Therefore I started this research believing that content-based instruction (CBI) may be appropriate in WLC. However, the appropriateness of CBI in WLC cannot be evaluated unless the approach is applied in the actual setting. In the mean time, this new approach may elicit different attitude and reactions from teachers and students. A fair judgement of this approach can only be achieved when both the teachers and the students are highly motivated and actively involved as major participants in the CBI practice.

Although a case study is not a research method itself, it is an appropriate teacher-generated approach (McDonough & McDonough, 1997: 203). The case study is adopted as an approach in my field work since it helps to explain 'what I did' in order to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI in WLC. Action research is introduced as the character of my field research and it helps to explain 'how I did it'. Being involved in the CBI programme in WLC as a teacher and coordinator, I have the opportunities to reflect on the development of the programme and modify procedures in CBI classes. This process makes my field work more action research-oriented.

Section one of this chapter introduces the case study as an approach to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI in WLC. Validity, reliability and generalizability are also discussed. Section two is an attempt to characterise action research. In this section, I chose a series of reflective procedures to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI through contextualized practice. The rationale behind this practice is that a theoretical approach in education can be understood, criticised and developed through educational practice itself. To make this practice a productive process, self-reflection is always needed. Section three demonstrates the procedures of implementing a CBI research programme in WLC. The procedures reflect a spiral cycle of action research. The final section of this chapter introduced other methods applied in my research. These methods include interviews, questionnaires and personal communications etc.

2.1 Case study as an approach to my field work

As argued by McDonough and McDonough (1997: 203), a case study is not in itself a research method. Instead, it employs methods for various research purposes. Case studies are regarded as the most appropriate approach for teacher-generated research. This is because, according to Simons (1987: 72), studies of single cases enable teachers to appreciate descriptions of individual situations in education and relate them to their own teaching practice.

2.1.1 Categorisations of case study

There are different types of case study. According to Cohen *et al.* (2000: 185), a case study can be based on hours of structured participant observational materials (e.g. Acker, 1990, cited in Cohen *et al.*, 2000) or on years of unstructured non-participation observation (e.g. Boulton, 1992, cited in Cohen *et al.*, 2000). From the outcome of the study, case studies can be classified as exploratory, descriptive and explanatory (Yin, quoted in Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995 and cited by McDonough and McDonough, 2000). According to the purposes of the study, Stake (1995, cited in McDonough and McDonough, 2000) argues that there are three types of case studies: intrinsic (the study is focused on a single student, course or school), extrinsic (the study is based on data collected from a group of teachers, students or schools) and instrumental (the study on something with the purpose of explaining something else, e.g. illustrating students' development by examining the teacher's performance).

Concerning my research project, the case refers to a two-month CBI programme in WLC. There are two reasons for choosing WLC as the context of my research. The first reason is related to Simons' (1987: 66) statement that "case studies must not only be based on actual schools, they must report authentic situations". In my case study, the authentic report is based on a thorough understanding of the setting. I have

been teaching English in WLC for nine years, and was head of the English department between 2000 and 2003. This experience enables me to understand the background and development of WLC. It also provides access to little known information about WLC. In other words, I am familiar with the administrative structure of WLC and able to receive information from relevant departments.

The other reason for conducting my case study in WLC concerns Simons' statement that "the case-study must not only be authentic and detailed... it must also be rigorously accurate and impartial" (1987: 67). Many years of working experience in WLC, as well as a good interpersonal relationship with other staff, enables me to receive full support, including detailed information about the teaching staff, administration, local culture and student population, etc. Accuracy of the data and information is guaranteed through frequent contact with teachers and students during the programme. Follow-up information is also accessible through continuous contact with WLC after the CBI programme. All the above contribute to an impartial report on my case study.

There are different types of case studies. As mentioned earlier in this section, case studies are identified as exploratory, descriptive and explanatory by Yin, or descriptive, interpretative and evaluative by Merriam (both quoted in Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). My case study seems to be the combination of exploratory, descriptive, interpretative/explanatory and evaluative. It is exploratory because CBI has not previously been practised in WLC. The programme is more likely a pilot study and many elements including course schedule and credibility are subject to further development. It is descriptive because the case study provides a detailed introduction of the contextual background and the process of the programme in WLC. It is interpretative because the case study aims to establish a better understanding of the CBI approach and to seek for an appropriate CBI model for college level education in China. Finally, the case study is evaluative since the CBI programme in WLC is conducted in order to assess the effectiveness of CBI against the cultural and

educational background in China.

WLC represents college level education in China because it shares with other colleges curriculum prescribed by the central government. Therefore, in a sense, case studies in any Chinese college can be representative. CBI programme in WLC may provide valuable information and implications about applying the approach to other Chinese colleges. However, no two colleges are completely the same. The approach should be adopted by other college teachers through adaptation and accommodation, which are components of action research.

2.1.2 *Methods used in the case study*

As mentioned in the previous section, the case study of CBI in WLC combines features of many types of case studies. It is exploratory, descriptive and evaluative. Many research methods are used to study the CBI case in WLC in order to gather as much information as possible so as to increase the validity and credibility of the research. Data collected through these methods are either qualitative or quantitative.

A piece of action research, which is introduced later in this chapter, is applied to characterize the case study approach. The former introduces 'what I did' and the latter explained 'how I did it'. Methods introduced in this section may overlap those introduced in the cycles of action research. In order to avoid over-repetition, this section focuses on research methods such as observation, diaries and reports etc. The use of other methods including questionnaires and interviews for the case study are illustrated later in section 2.4.

2.1.2.1 Descriptive observation

Naturalistic and descriptive observation is regarded by Cohen and Manion (1989: 125) as central to every case study. In my case study, observation takes place in CBI

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classes as a natural setting.

The naturalistic observation (Cohen *et al.*, 2000: 310) is applied as the main type of observation in the CBI programme in WLC. Students are at the centre of the observation. The three CBI team teachers, the two law lecturers and I, observe students' facial expression, sometimes as participants and sometimes as non-participants, to see if the knowledge introduced by the teacher is comfortably accepted or is above the general level of students' ability. The result is discussed at the CBI team meetings in order to improve the teaching effect.

CBI teachers also participate in students' activities to facilitate or assess student development. They pay attention to students' performance in group discussion. They may either adjust the teaching spontaneously according to students' reactions or discuss it at team meetings. Information acquired through observation may also be confirmed with programme students through informal conversation.

2.1.2.2 Narrative and analytic diaries

The case study in WLC is exploratory since it is more likely a pilot study for further practice and research (McDonough and McDonough, 1997: 206). A large amount of work needs to be done for the smooth progress of the CBI programme, including seeking political, financial and academic support. In the light of classroom observation, teacher-student conversation and team meetings, etc. procedures and teaching modes during the programme are under continuous modification. A record needs to be kept for the purposes of teaching and research.

Programme diaries and course reports are contributed by the language teachers and students in WLC. Programme students are required to keep a learner's diary (McDonough and McDonough, 1997: 127-130), informing of what they have learned every day from the CBI classes. They also need to submit a study report every one or

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two weeks, depending on their overall workload. These diaries and reports are in most cases narrative, recalling the gains and expressing the commitment to hard work.

As a teacher and researcher in the CBI programme, I keep work diaries after each CBI class, recording and reflecting on the teaching procedures, other teachers' comment and suggestions, as well as students' progress. This type of diary is classified by McDonough and McDonough (1997: 131) as the teacher's diary. I also keep a memorandum of each CBI team meeting. These diaries and memoranda are both narrative and analytic. On the one hand, they provide an insightful view of what has happened in CBI classes as well as the impact of CBI on the participants. On the other hand, feedbacks from teachers and students are to be analysed carefully before group decisions are made. Communication with the programme students and team meeting are aimed to reduce the 'subjectivity' (McDonough and McDonough, 2000: 135) of the diaries and memoranda. It is hoped that modified teaching modes and procedures based on the feedback may largely encourage students' engagement in the teaching programme and research project.

The two law lecturers are also asked to compose course reports at the end of the CBI programme. The reports need to record the programme students' development in the content area and analyse if the development is related to the CBI approach in the programme. The two law lecturers are also asked to reflect on their own development during the CBI programme concerning language and content integration in teaching practice. The main reason for requiring only one programme report from the content teachers is due to their heavy workload in teaching their own courses, attending CBI team meetings and other valuable contributions to the programme.

2.1.2.3   Follow-up information collection through online contact

The two-month CBI programme is successful due to the combined effort from the

administration, teaching staff and the students. However, the time limit may leave the participants with an impression that the research programme is conducted for the sake of research alone. In other words, the teacher and student participants may interpret the research as a process that starts with data collection and finishes with conclusions based on data analysis. Most programme students hoped that they have provided adequate information for my research at the end-of-programme discussion.

In order to clarify that the aim of my research is to improve the teaching practice, I keep contact with some programme students and teachers of their free will. E-mail and online chat are the two main forms of contact after I came back to Southampton University from WLC to continue my research project. The contact has three functions: it helps to establish a better understanding of information that has been collected during the programme. Some missing information can be re-collected through online contact. In addition, it provides an opportunity to update the information about the on-going impact of CBI in WLC. Very importantly, the follow-up contact indicates that teaching practice is consistently the centre of my research.

The use of these methods is illustrated along with the introduction to the action research in the following sections. Other methods including questionnaires and interviews are introduced in detail in section 2.4.

2.2 Action research as character of my field work

By using WLC as a case, I attempt to study the effectiveness of CBI. I am involved in the case study not only as the researcher, but also as a teacher in CBI classes. During the CBI programme in WLC, I reflect on experience in each CBI class and seek an appropriate teaching mode for an effective CBI in WLC. This process resembles characteristics of action research. In a sense, action research is a significant part of my research.

2.2.1 Concept and characteristics of action research

Stenhouse (1975) is one of the earliest advocates of action research in the United Kingdom. He argues that teachers should carry out research on the basis of their own classrooms because

> The uniqueness of each classroom setting implies that any proposal – even at school level – needs to be tested and verified and adapted by each teacher in his own classroom. The ideal is that the curricular specifications should feed a teacher's personal research and development programmes through which he is increasing his own understanding of his own work and hence bettering his teaching.
>
> (Stenhouse, 1975: 143)

The idea of teachers' studying their own work is developed by Donald Schon's (1983) theory of *reflective practice*. As he claims, "when someone reflects-in-action, he becomes a researcher in the practice context" (1983: 68).

Without disagreeing that a teacher can also be a researcher, some researchers see teaching and researching as entities of two distinctive fields. As argued by Brumfit and Mitchell (1989: 10), for example, 'research is a type of contemplation ... while teaching is a type of action'.

Researchers like Brumfit and Mitchell (1989) might view teaching and research as belonging to different behavioural dimensions. The former involves more action while the latter is more thought- demanding. However, there is a tight link between teaching and research. On the one hand, research is valueless if its result cannot be used to explain, evaluate and improve teaching practice. On the other hand, any teaching is a process of introducing, applying and assessing research product. Despite the hot debate on action and research, the term *action research* is neither a conventional type of research, nor is it a pure action. It 'juxtaposes' and

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'amalgamates' action and research by emphasising that "reflecting on action allows the development of a critical distance from the real-time action itself" (McDonough & McDonough, 1997: 22). In this sense, action research is rather a principle or methodology for practical development. The teacher can only develop his or her teaching practice by continuous reflection on the process and outcome of each class.

Standing on the common ground that action research is a type of reflective practice aiming at improvement of the practice, action research advocates such as Elliot (1991), Kemmis (1993), and McNiff (2002), etc. view its character from different aspects.

Viewing action research as a process of reflective practice with practical improvement as its product, Elliot (1991: 51) argues the ethical and philosophical as characteristics of action research. It is ethical because the aim of action research reflects one's interpretation in the value of the improved practice. It is philosophical because the means to improve the practice indicates one's practical philosophy.

A definition of action research given by Kemmis and McTaggart (1988: 5) and Kemmis (1993: 177) summarises three central characteristics: it is self-reflective, practical and collaborative (1993: 186). Action research is seen as a learning process involving a self-reflective spiral of 'planning, acting, observing, and reflecting' (1993: 178). According to Kemmis,

> Action research is a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social (including educational) situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of (a) their own social or educational practices, (b) their understanding of these practices, and (c) the situations in which the practices are carried out.
>
> (Kemmis, 1993: 177)

Self-reflection is therefore the first characteristic of action research. An action

researcher is meanwhile a practitioner. In other words, there is no distinction between the researcher and the practitioner. Teachers study their own teaching and learn from their own experience. This process of self-reflection is also continuous and developmental. As seen by McNiff (2002: 13), there is always achievement, but there is never a final result. "A final result does not exist. We are always on the move".

A second character of action research is that it is practical. Rather than research *about* practice, action research is practice itself. The topic or objective of this research derives from problems in one's personal experience. These problems are to be solved by the change, adjustment and evaluation of one's own practice.

Although action research is research into one's own practice, it is rarely conducted individually. Collaboration is the third character of action research. The practice of action research is always related to and reflected by other people as participants or outsiders. Collaboration helps to enhance the credibility and validity of action research outcomes (Burns, 1999). The outcome, as well as the process of action research as practice, may influence other people's practice. It is from this aspect that McNiff (2002) claims personal and social values of action research. At a personal level, action research provides a new aspect of teachers' practice. It involves an innovative process of doing, reflecting, adjusting and improving. At a social level, action research invites collaborative participants. The process and product may therefore influence others' behaviour and attitude.

There are a number of definitions of action research, while different approaches to action research are applied for different purposes. In the field of education, action research is seen as 'any inquiry teachers undertake to understand their own practice' (McCutcheon and Jung, 1990: 144). The purpose of educational action research is for the teachers to improve their own practice. As argued by Cohen and Manion (1994: 192), this improvement can only be achieved through changing their attitude and behaviour, since these action researchers play roles not only as teachers but also as

inquirers or researchers during the process. This process may also bring about changes among their students.

The three characteristics of action research extend the role of the professional teacher as potential educational researcher. The spiral cycles in action research bear considerable resemblance to Wallace's (1998: 13-4) framework of inquiry-based professional development. This inquiry can only be categorized as research when it involves systematic data collection and analysis. As argued by McDonough and McDonough (1997: 23), 'reflecting is the basis for research, not the research itself'. However, it is reasonable to say that a teacher is on the way to research when an action research project is carried out.

2.2.2 My action research as a reflective practice-theory cycle

I came across the term of action research when I was doing my MA research methods courses. However, it was during the process of my field practice that I started to obtain further understanding of the three central characteristics of action research, respectively self-reflection, practicality, and collaboration.

First of all, my research is self-reflective because it follows a spiral of action-reflection cycles (see McNiff, 2002: 40-41). The cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting in my field research programme is illustrated in the next section. To be brief in this section, I would prefer to name it a self-reflective practice-theory cycle. This is because the process of my research reflects the relationship between practice and theory.

The relationship between practice and theory has been referred to as the chicken-egg cycle. As seen by McNiff (2002: 35), "theory is lived in practice and practice becomes a form of living theory". In my case, as far as CBI is concerned, the research follows a sequential framework of my EFL teaching practice in WLC- CBI

theory - my CBI practice in WLC- my WLC-specific CBI procedures. Self-reflection occurs within the practice-theory sequences. The aim is to identify the issues in the practice and solve them so as to improve the practice. A sample cycle is presented below as in table 2.1.

Practice: Traditional approaches have been applied in my EFL classes in WLC. These approaches seem to be appropriate since:

Reflection: 1. there seems to be something missing. What has been learned is much less than what has been taught. What has been taught is scarcely what is used for real life needs.
2. Subject matter related language items seem to be more interesting to the students. They pick these items up quickly and are more willing to use them.

Theory: The integration of English language and content knowledge may be a better approach.

Practice: After conducted a wide literature review on CBI, I carried out the integrative content-language programme in WLC.

Reflection: 1. CBI procedures should be adjusted and modified continuously during the programme.
2. Data are to be collected and analysed during and after the programme.

A new cycle of theory- (reflection) – practice - (reflection) starts.

Table 2.1 My CBI practice-theory cycle
(loosely based on McNiff, 2002)

Although I seem to play the central role in the self-reflective cycles, the whole process is by no means an individual practice. Collaboration also fits into my

research programme. Each phase of self-reflection involves evaluation and decision making. It is dangerous to make a decision on my own judgement. Cooperation of other inside participants and outside observers is crucial.

Collaboration exists throughout the whole process of my field research. It is the research into my own practice. It is, in a way, personal, but by no means isolated. Modifications and changes at each stage of the programme have reflected the power of group decision and serious consideration of the students' reaction. Evaluation of the programme is also based on group judgement and students' improvement. Participation of students and co-workers is a key element for the completion, if not success, of my research.

My field research is also practical. First of all, it derives from my professional concern. Research questions related to this concern can only be answered through practice. Secondly, the aim of this research is to improve my educational practice. Thirdly, my role as a participant also makes my research *as* a practice rather than *about* the practice. Last by not least, the collaborative character of my research may create practical value. For the student and teacher participants, this research is also a process of learning through experiencing.

Finally, since my field practice of CBI is conducted in WLC, it may not be possible to generalise the data and outcomes of the research outside of Wuhan Law College. Therefore, it echoes a fourth character of action research added by McDonough and McDonough, i.e. context-specific (1997: 27). Nonetheless, some social values are also expected. It is hoped that the CBI programme in WLC can be applied to more language classes in college level education settings in China and other EFL contexts.

Characteristics of action research are embedded in the process of action research itself. The next section illustrates my action research framework in practice. The overall design of the framework matches the spiral of 'planning, acting, observing

and reflecting'.

2.3 Action research in action: Implementation of my CBI programme

This section focuses on reflection on my action research. It is found that elements of spiral cycle in action research comprise a developmental progress. However, these elements do not occur in a strictly linear order, and the stages are not rigidly separated from one another. For example, reflecting, planning and observing may take place during action. The concurrent existence of these elements can be seen in the framework of my action research.

2.3.1   Procedures of the CBI research in WLC

My research starts with general planning about how to carry out a CBI programme in WCL and the expected outcome of the programme. Self-reflection is conducted concerning my teaching experience and the situation in WLC. Following the stage of general plan, more preparatory work is carried out for a smooth implementation of the CBI programme in WLC. The pre-implementation includes planning the implementation, action for administrative and academic support and reflection on received data and information. The implementation and post-implementation stages involve the cycle of action, observation and reflection. However, further recurrence of the cycle happens during the implementation of the programme. A brief glance of the procedures of my action research is as shown in table 2.2, which is followed by a detailed explanation.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ General planning (based on self-reflection of my │
│ teaching experience and situation in WLC)        │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Pre-implementation:                              │
│ planning ──────► action ──────► reflection       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Implementation: a recursive process of           │
│ action──► observation──► reflection──►planning   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Post-implementation:                             │
│ action──────► observation──────► reflection      │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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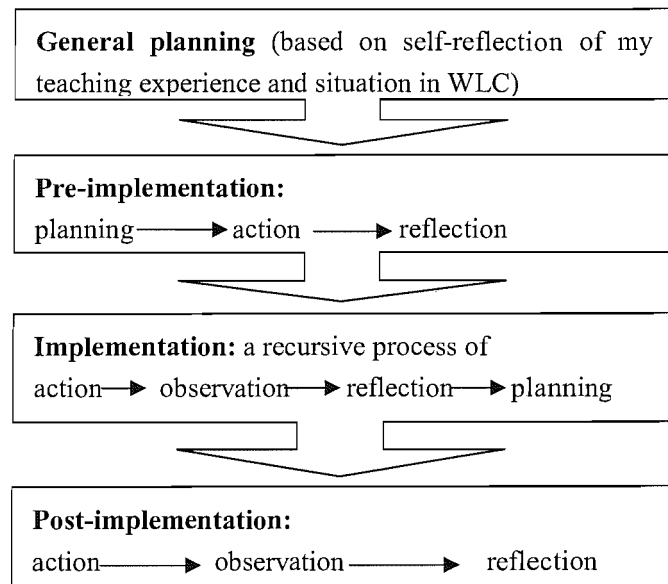
Table 2.2 Procedures of the CBI action research in WLC
(loosely based on Kemmis, 1993)

2.3.1.1   General planning

As the first step of the spiral framework of action research, a general plan is made on the basis of my teaching experiences as well as the situation in WLC. The result of self-reflection determines the design of my research.

My experience includes the following factors:

- I had a rich experience in English language learning, and I was, and indeed still am, learning it for personal and professional purposes.

- I had been teaching in Wuhan Law College (WLC) for nine years and maintained good relationships with administrative and teaching staff in WLC.

- The students' feedback on my EFL classes was always positive, but I was not satisfied with my teaching because

- My students' general English proficiency remained low, and they seldom had the chance to use the English language in their real life.

- I believed the combination of English language learning with law study would be beneficial, although the integrative teaching could be challenging to teachers and students.

The background of the action research, i.e. what I know about the situation in WLC and about content-language integration in general, is that:

- There was always a dramatic increase in students' interest and attention to law-related English language items.

- No formal content-language integration was conducted in WLC.

- CBI has been adopted by some universities in China, and the number is increasing remarkably.

On the basis of the reflection above, a general plan of my research is designed:

- Conducting a wide literature review on the integrative approach of content and language;

- Carrying out an analysis of students' needs in WLC;

- Undertaking a practical innovation using CBI in Wuhan Law College;

- Developing a CBI model appropriate for WLC students;

- Evaluating the CBI practice in WLC through systematic data collection and analysis; and

- Developing a better understanding of CBI and identifying problems with the CBI approach for further professional practice.

As can be seen, the phase of planning involves self-reflecting, which can be related to one's pervious action and observation. It is not difficult to understand that the interplay of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting may take place in each step of the overall plan, either collectively or selectively.

To provide an insight into this interplay, I shall use my CBI practice in WLC as an example of an action research cycle.

2.3.1.2 Implementing the CBI programme in WLC

As part of my overall plan, a piece of action research is conducted in WLC. In this process, spiral cycles play a central role, with the possible co-existence of 'planning, acting, observing, and reflecting' (Kemmis, 1993: 178) in each step of the cycle (See table 2.1). Other approaches such as questionnaires, interviews, field-notes, and diaries, etc. are used before, during, and after implementation of CBI practice. The following action-reflection sequences offer an example of action research in WLC as a micro-context.

a)   PRE-IMPLEMENTATION

Planning

- A positive environment needs to be prepared for my CBI programme.

- A survey should be carried out about information and materials that are already available and lacking. (*Reflection*)

- Approaches and access to participants, collaboration and information, etc. demand thorough consideration. (*Reflection for further planning and acting*)

Action

- Formal and informal contacts with administrative staff are made for political and financial support for the CBI programme.

- Questionnaires (see Appendix IV) are distributed to the WLC students. The purpose is to gain information on learners' needs. The pre-implementation data are to be compared with those collected after the CBI programme. Questionnaires are collected by the CBI teachers in person. Simultaneous conversations with the students take place during the collection. (*Reflection and observation involved*)

- Questionnaires (see Appendix V) are distributed to teaching staff in WLC in order to evaluate teachers' attitude to CBI before the programme. Follow-up interviews are conducted for further information. (*Reflection and observation required*)

- Interviews with teachers in other colleges and universities in Wuhan (see Appendices III and VI) are conducted. The purpose is to learn related knowledge and information from teachers with experience in CBI. (*Reflection and observation demanded*)

- Data collected need to be analysed immediately and collaboratively with participants.

(*No observation in this cycle*)

Reflection

- What lessons and suggestions should be learned from the implementation of CBI in other colleges and universities?

- Are there any specific factors in the WLC context? What are they? How are these factors going to affect my CBI practice?

- What else is needed before the first CBI class in WLC? (*Planning for further action, with reflection involved*)

These cycles take place before implementation of the CBI programme in WLC. The following cycle starts with the first CBI class. Acting is the first step in the cycle.

b)   IMPLEMENTATION

Action

- The first unit (see Appendix VIII for course materials, lesson plan and teacher diary entries, etc.) of *English for the Legal Profession* (Dong & Zhao, 1997) is introduced in English by me as a language teacher. The teacher's talking speed and difficulty of the language used is adjusted according to students' reaction. (*Observation and reflection involved*)

- A summary of unit one is given in Chinese by one of my collaborators, a lecturer from the law faculty, while I am listening. (*Action, observation and reflection employed*)

Observing

- Students show great interest in this new teaching model. They pay great attention to the class and engage actively in various activities.

- Students try to remember all the new words in the text written in English.

- Chinese is still the dominant language in group discussion. (*Reflection initiated*)

Reflection

- Why do students' reactions to the first CBI class differ greatly from the teachers' expectation? For example, many students drop out of the programme afterwards, complaining that the course is too difficult.
  (*Action: A set of formal contacts with collaborators are carried out for a group decision. Reflection initiated*)

- The low level of students' English language proficiency is still the main problem in the class. In spite of the Chinese educational culture which may shed some light on the students' quietness in most subject classes, Should we be more tolerant towards students' silence in CBI courses? Or should some immediate change be made to encourage students' active engagement?
  (*A new cycle of planning, acting, observing, and reflection initiated*)

- How can an updated judgement of the students' development in language and content abilities be made? Can the law lecturers help with the assessment? Should the students have more say?

Planning

- Without hindering students' content development, some effort should be made to facilitate students' language mastery.
  (*Reflection on my language teaching needed*)

- Students are to be required to keep study diaries, preferably in English.

- More attention should be paid to programme students' performance in law classes.

Action

- English oral presentation is made compulsory for students. Suggestions are given for them to search for relevant language and content support before the class.

- Background content knowledge and information are introduced in Chinese before English-medium content teaching.

- English language items are introduced along with their use in the content area.

- Adjustment in language speed and difficulty is made according to students' reaction. (*Observation applied*)

Observation

- Students seem more comfortable in class. (*Reflection started for further planning*)

- Students show more enthusiasm since they are being treated as participants in the research project as a whole.

- Teachers from other content departments ask to attend CBI classes.

- Suggestions are given by teacher attendants that direct feedback and comments be offered on students' oral presentation.

Reflection

- Due to the frequent adjustment and modification of CBI procedures, a work diary should be kept.

- Group meetings should always welcome students' attendance and their opinions should be taken into account in decision making.

- Content teachers' feedback is extremely valuable. So is the students'. How can the information channel be broadened?

  (*Another cycle started involving planning, action, observation, and reflection*)

c)   POST-IMPLEMENTATION

The cycle continues throughout my CBI practice. The sequences of cycles illustrate the development in my thinking and action. This development is based on continuous interaction with other teachers and students as participants in the research. A WLC-specific CBI model is established as the result of team effort.

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the CBI model in WLC, a series of actions are taken after the programme.

Action

- End-of-programme questionnaires (see Appendix XI) are distributed to student participants.

- An end-of-programme discussion is held for students to exchange their experiences and gains in the CBI programme.

- Content lecturers, as collaborators in the programme, are asked to write a report (see appendix XII) on their CBI experiences.

Observation

- All of the participants sigh with relief!

- A sense of achievement overwhelms the discussion and subsequent party.

- Many students ask questions about learning strategies.

- Both students and teachers wonder if the outcome of the programme has satisfied the original expectation.

Reflection

- Is the outcome worth the effort during the programme?

- Why does the content teachers' reaction to CBI differ so enormously from that of the language teachers? Compared with the content teachers, most language teachers in WLC have shown little interest in the progress of the course.

- What are the factors that contribute to the success of the programme?

- How far is this short honeymoon of CBI in WLC from the use of CBI as an approach in the regular curriculum of WLC?

Some of these questions may be answered after systematic analysis of data collected in the programme. Some calls for further research. Answers to these questions will always be open to other professional development activities (Wallace, 1998: 14), such as conferences, discussions and journals, etc. Problems that have arisen may call for further actions and research, including action research.

As seen from above action-reflection cycles, other methods have also been employed in my research. The following section provides more details.

2.4   Other methods applied to my research

Just as action research is more a practice than a type of research, methods and techniques used for action research, e.g. interviews, questionnaires, observation, teaching diaries, personal reports, etc. are not action research specific. Since most of the methods have been introduced in the first three sections, this section will focus on other methods including interviews and questionnaires.

Before reporting on the application of interviews and questionnaires in my research, I would like to present a clearer view of the link between my research questions and methodologies used for the answers. The table below is regarded as helpful.

Research questions	Sources for data collection
Is CBI an appropriate methodology for WLC as a further education college?	1. data collected for questions 2 to 6 in questionnaires for students 2. interviews with lecturers in other colleges in Wuhan
How effective is CBI in developing students' EFL proficiency?	1. oral presentations reporting on reading content materials 2. homework and learner diaries 3. classroom activities (e.g. discussions and evidence of listening comprehension) 4. questionnaires 5. end-of-programme discussion
How and how much do CBI courses contribute to students' content mastery?	1. homework including learning diaries 2. content teachers feedback 3. questionnaires
How effective is CBI in developing students' cognitive maturity?	1. critical thinking adopted in classroom discussion 2. learning strategies summarised in learning diaries, end-of-programme discussion, and questionnaires
What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from other language teachers in WLC?	1. interviews 2. informal conversations
What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from content teachers in WLC?	1. questionnaires for both participants and non-participants 2. interviews with participating teachers and heads of three content departments 3. course reports from participating teachers 4. informal conversations with both participants and non-participants

Table 2.3 Methodologies applied for my research questions

In order to facilitate the action research cycle, questionnaires are distributed to students before and at the end of the CBI programme in Wuhan Law College. The pre-programme questionnaire aims to elicit information about students' needs in CBI, whereas the end-of-programme questionnaire intends to evaluate the effectiveness of the CBI approach with regard to students' language proficiency, content mastery and their cognitive abilities.

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To form a complete impression for further analysis, unstructured follow-up interviews, inter-personal communications and in-class observations are conducted in addition to questionnaires. The theme of these informal contacts is recorded in my work diaries.

Interviews are administered to a number of content and language lecturers in some higher and further education settings. The focus of these interviews is on language and content teachers' experience in and attitudes to the pedagogical practice of CBI as well as students' reaction to it. Informal communications, theme of which is also recorded in my work diaries, are also conducted to supplement these interviews.

2.4.1 Questionnaires before the programme

The pre-programme student questionnaire (see Appendix IV) is an essential method to gather information about learners' needs. There are two major reasons for using this methodology for my research. First, questionnaires provide an effective means to get precise and clear information (McDonough & McDonough, 1997: 171). In order to gather a set of data with high precision on learners' language needs, language attitudes, learning experience and strategies, 106 questionnaires are given to a broad range of student informants. To ensure a good level of accuracy, all the questionnaires are distributed and completed within the same period of time, i.e. in the evening supervision, when all the informants are present in their respective classrooms. The responses of questionnaires for students enrolled in CBI teaching programmes are treated more systematically than the responses from non-programme students. This is because that the purpose of the programme is to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI. The data collected before the programme will also be used for course evaluation.

The second reason for using questionnaires is because they are administered in a

form that eases the tension between the teacher and the students. It fulfils the conversational process of asking and answering questions, but avoids the potential discomfort of the students when they encounter their teachers face to face. Meanwhile, the confidentiality secured by questionnaires encourages students to give the most precise and honest answers within their ability of understanding. Particular to this research programme is the observation that students are more willing and comfortable to fill in the questionnaires in evening supervision time, since it is less stressful than doing homework or attending additional lectures.

Although more than one type of question is asked in my questionnaires, the majority of questions are close-ended. The students need only to tick the boxes of Yes or No. Simple and direct questions are asked to get responses with high precision and low ambiguity. However, a disadvantage of this kind of questions is that little room is allowed for the informants to explain and fewer choices are given to them. Therefore, some multiple-choice and open-ended questions are provided in the questionnaires. These questions aimed to find out about learners' language learning experiences and strategies, as well as their favourite teaching modes.

Students enrolled in my teaching programme are the major informants, and their real names are preferably required to secure full rate of return. However, pseudonyms are also acceptable since the true and precise answers are more important than the identity of the respondents. The returned pre-programme questionnaires are not exposed to either other teachers or staff from the administrative department. This is because the teachers' reaction to the questionnaires may affect their attitude in the cooperation during the CBI programme. For example, a positive feedback on EGP (English for general purposes) courses may encourage language teachers to stick to traditional teaching approaches, while students' enthusiasm in CBI as a new approach may cause competition between CBI lecturers and language teachers. The reliability of findings in the action research can thus be reduced as a result of poor intra- and inter-disciplinary coordination.

The questionnaire is written in Chinese in order for all the students to completely understand every question. As shown in Appendix IV, thirty-five questions are included in the questionnaire; it was assumed that twenty-five to thirty minutes would be required for the completion. Questions one to eleven aim to gather information on students' language attitudes and their experience in language learning. Questions twelve to twenty-three concern factors that affect students' motivation in content, language, and content-language integrated learning. Questions twenty-four to thirty-two are focused on learners' language opportunities and learning strategies. At the end of the questionnaire, the learners have the opportunity to express and comment on their needs in language instruction. Appreciation is expressed at the end of the questionnaire.

To ensure and maintain the accuracy of the data collected through questionnaires, follow-up semi-structured interviews, inter-personal communications, and in-class observations are conducted during and after the CBI programme in the fieldwork.

The questionnaires and interviews are translated in English in appendices. Although the original Chinese version is well understood by the WLC teachers and students as informants, some of the questions may not be fully understandable by the readers from other linguistic and cultural contexts. In question nine of the pre-programme questionnaire, for example,

9. Do you agree with the saying that 'I did not pass the English exams because I love my own country'?

            Yes   No

the saying that 'I did not pass the English exams because I love my own country' is closely related to the Chinese students' learning experience. Patriotism is used by many Chinese students as an excuse for their low English language proficiency. It is

therefore worth mentioning that a certain degree of attention should be paid to the translation issue when more than one language is used in a research project and the related methodologies.

2.4.2 *Interviews with teaching staff in colleges and universities*

A great advantage of the interview as a method of data collection is its adaptability (Bell, 1999: 135). However, that is not the major reason for using the method in my fieldwork. The interviewees are lecturers in colleges and universities in Wuhan, China. As a group with high social status in the Chinese context, they may be reluctant and unwilling to fill in questionnaires. Questionnaires are normally less time-consuming than interviews; however, they may cause the feeling of being tested rather than consulted and result in a low rate of response.

There are two outstanding challenges of interviews: the difficulties in data analysis and the control of time. The interviewer has to make the best use of the time to generate information while keeping a comfortable conversational atmosphere. Even if sufficient data are gathered through interviews, analysing them is another problem. The two problems are closely related: Time spent on interviews limits the number of interviews, and the form of data collected by means of interview is normally not quantitative. While qualitative data gathered through interviews can be extremely useful, but generalisation is always problematic.

The issue in interviews is the balance between eliciting information and focusing on the theme. A combination of structured and less-structured interviews is adopted as the solution of this issue. Structured interviews take the form of questionnaires that are completed by the interviewer, whereas less-structured interviews are carried out by a set of leading topics. Moreover, the same proportion of structured and semi-structured questions and topics is maintained for all respondents from Wuhan Law College and other universities. The selection of this format is expected to reduce

the difficulty in data analysis

The purpose of interviews with CBI teachers in colleges and universities (see Appendix III) is to collect information about their experience in teaching through the CBI approach and the students' reaction to it. Because the interview is conducted during the winter vacation, most students are not available. Another reason for choosing teachers as the informants is because of their experience in CBI course assessment.

Since CBI has never been conducted in WLC, content lecturers from WLC are asked about students' content needs, including the relationship between English language proficiency and students' content success. Interviews with language teachers in WLC (see Appendix V) focus on issues in language teaching, e.g. teaching materials, communicative activities, and teaching strategies in language classrooms. The interviews also touch on the feasibility of CBI in college level education in terms of teachers' development and students' language needs.

A pilot study is conducted in advance in order to time the interview and to ensure the clarity and adequacy of the questions. The interviewees include several EFL learners in school settings, a few retired professionals with experience of learning a foreign language and many graduates of WLC. Feedback from these informants contributes greatly to the final formats of the questionnaires and interviews.

Before the interview, agreements are made on the date, place, duration, form, and purpose of the interview through interpersonal communication. Either English or Chinese language is used in the interview according to the interviewees' preference. In fact, all the informants chose Chinese as the language for interview since it is the mother tongue of shared between them and me as the interviewer. A shared L1 has led to smooth communication during the interview. All the interviews were audio recorded, transcribed and translated with the interviewees' permission. However, as discussed previously, translating the audio-recorded L1 interviews into English as

another language may cause comprehension issues. Linguistic and cultural factors are to be considered in order to solve these issues.

The interviews are carried out in casual and quiet settings and completed before the teaching programme. An on-going interaction with the informants is regarded as necessary during and after the programme.

2.4.2.1   Interviews with content lecturers in the universities

To explore the popularity of the CBI approach in China, the first sets of interviews (see Appendix III) are conducted with teaching staff in tertiary education settings of China. Lecturers from academic and language faculties are interviewed.

Students in Chinese universities majoring in academic subjects are required to learn English as their English language proficiency influences the award of degrees. A Bachelor's degree demands English proficiency of National English Test (NET) Grade 4, whereas a Master's degree Grade 6. Therefore, university students in China encounter English language in both language and content classrooms. However, little contact and coordination has taken place between the language and the content departments. Due to the high interest in this issue, my interview with university professors from language and content departments aimed at 1) application of CBI in content classrooms, 2) CBI course assessment and 3) the roles of language and content teachers in students' language and content development.

Questions and topics of interviews with academic experts focus on the application of CBI in content classrooms and its effectiveness. Six content lecturers from four universities are interviewed. These universities are, respectively, Wuhan University, Mid-southern University of Political Science and Law, Huazhong (Central China) University of Science and Technology, and Central China Normal University. The format is as follows:

As can be seen in appendix III, the interview consists of two parts. Part one resembles the format of a questionnaire. It focuses on the interviewee's instructional background, i.e. academic subject, years of teaching and length of time in the current university, etc. Part two of the interview is less structured. The topics focus on the application of CBI in teaching subject matter courses, students' reaction, course assessment, and the content teachers' attitudes towards inter-disciplinary cooperation. The purpose of getting sufficient information accounts for the less-structured form of this part of interview.

2.4.2.2   Interviews with language teachers from colleges and universities

Four English teachers were interviewed. One of them is from Wuhan University, one from Wuhan College of Railway Transportation and two from Wuhan Institute of Economics.

The format of interviews (See Appendix VI) with language teachers is similar to that with content lecturers. However, the aims are different. In the first part of these interviews, primacy is given to the purpose of language teaching, pedagogical techniques in language classrooms and teacher development. Questions are asked about the teachers' language learning and teaching experience (e.g. questions one to five) as well as relative training they have received about their students' subject courses (e.g. question seven).

The second part of the interview (questions eight to fourteen), which is much less structured, allows more room for the interviewees to express their attitudes towards and confidence in the CBI approach, as well as their willingness to participate in the inter-disciplinary cooperation. As mentioned previously, these questions are asked and answered in Chinese as the L1 for the interviewer and the interviewees. Efforts have been made for a clear explanation of the interviews, although the reader may

still need to be aware of the potential issues caused by translation.

2.4.2.3   Interviews with content teachers in WLC

The interviews with content teachers in WLC (See Appendix V) resemble those with academic professors in Wuhan universities. However, the limited integration or even separation of language and content teaching aims the interviews at the students' needs and content teachers' attitudes to CBI.

All the twenty interviewees are law lecturers with no training and experience in using English as the medium of content teaching. In addition to the heterogeneity of the interviewees, the long-term and good relationship between the interviewer and interviewees made the interviews more straightforward and less structured.

The questionnaire part of the interview is distributed to forty-six content teaching staff in WLC. The focus is on their teaching experience and attitude to both the CBI approach and team-teaching. The questions are written in both Chinese and English. Since the English language involved in the questionnaires is simple, the interviewees might show more interest in reading and answering the questions.

Either real name or a pseudonym is accepted. This is mainly because some teachers do not wish their viewpoint be taken as personal by the administrators. Pseudonyms make it problematic to link the written questionnaires with the oral interviews. In order to solve this problem, the research should collect the questionnaires in person and take notes about the unnamed questionnaires or those with pseudonyms.

After the questionnaires, heads of the two law departments, respectively the department of civil law and the department of criminal law, are interviewed. Based on the questionnaires, the interviews are either semi-structured or unstructured. The follow-up topics and questions are designed and adjusted after the questionnaires and during the interview.

Since none of the content teachers in Wuhan Law College has experienced teaching a law course in English, the topics of the interviews focus on three dimensions: their attitudes to content-language integration, their willingness to develop their legal English proficiency, and their potential contribution to team-teaching.

2.4.2.4   Interviews with language teachers in WLC

Four language teachers in WLC are interviewed before the CBI programme. Unstructured interviews and informal conversations are the form to elicit information from language teachers in WLC. It is hoped that the unstructured interviews help to develop a close relationship with WLC language teachers so as to elicit profound information about and enthusiastic participation in the programme.

There are two purposes of this set of interviews : 1) to compare English teaching in colleges and universities in terms of teacher resources, aims of language teaching, and the students' needs, and thus 2) to evaluate the necessity, feasibility and effectiveness of CBI in college level education. Questions and topics for language teachers in college settings were similar to those for language teaching staff from other Wuhan colleges and universities (See Appendix VI).

2.4.2.5   End-of-programme questionnaires for CBI students

The questionnaire (See Appendix XI) at this stage focuses on differences the CBI programme has made in terms of students' in-class opportunities, after-class activities and their cognitive abilities. In order to obtain adequate qualitative information, more open-ended questions are provided. The original questionnaires are written in Chinese in order to obtain precise data for further analysis. Translation issues are therefore to be aware of by the reader. These questionnaires are distributed to the programme students only. Responses to the questions have been categorized as

positive, negative, and neutral.

The questionnaire is not the only means of course evaluation. A post-programme celebration/discussion is held with the attendance of the student and teacher participants. The students and teachers who are not involved in the programme are also invited so as to broaden the influence of CBI in WLC. The celebration provides an extra opportunity for the students to exchange their CBI experience. As a result of CBI team meeting, and with the support of administration in WLC, students who have received most positive feedback from the CBI teachers are rewarded with certificates of the legal English training course, which is accepted as a synonym of CBI in WLC. As a matter of fact, all of the thirty-six students have received the certificates due to their active participation in CBI classes.

Summary

This chapter has introduced case study and action research as the main approaches for my PhD research project. The process of evaluating the effectiveness of CBI by applying it to teaching practice echoes McNiff's (2002: 13) statement that action research is not a fixed framework, but a process of learning from experience, a dialectical interplay between practice, reflection and learning.

A number of research methods are used in the case study and action research, including questionnaires, interviews, work diaries, participants' report and observation etc. The use of these methods helps to collect both qualitative and quantitative data for the research project. A combination of the two types of data aims to increase the credibility of the result gained from the research. Meanwhile, being deeply involved in the CBI programme allows me to obtain accurate and detailed information about the programme as well as the setting itself.

There are many similarities between Chinese colleges due to the government guidance in Chinese education. This helps to increase the generalizability of my

research results. However, it is risky to apply the results to other colleges without adaptation to the specific settings. For many reasons, the number of the programme students is limited to thirty-six, which may affect the representativeness of the case. Meanwhile, outcomes of the two-month CBI practice in WLC are to be evaluated critically if the CBI approach is used for a long-term effect.

Research questions in this thesis derive from my EFL teaching experiences. They also reflect my hypotheses concerning the effectiveness of CBI. Action research provides an approach to test these hypotheses in real world practice, and a case study in WLC provides valuable information for the present and future CBI practice.

Since action research is systematic inquiry involving data collection and analysis (Wallace, 1998), more detailed illustration of the CBI programme in WLC is introduced in the next chapter, while the data collected is analysed and the outcome discussed in chapter four.

Chapter 3   CBI in Further Education Setting in China:

A case study in Wuhan Law College

Introduction

Chapter two introduces methodologies applied to my research. It is the aim of this chapter to present a substantive narrative account of my project: CBI in further education in China.

The CBI case study for my research was carried out in Wuhan Law College (WLC) between January and March of 2006. It involved delivering a two-month CBI programme to a group of law students. 106 students enrolled in the programme and the number dropped to 36 after the first week. However, all the 36 students attended the classes consistently till the end of the programme. As a language teacher with a diploma in law, I intended to present a series of law-based English language lessons in WLC.

These courses are classified, according to Dudley-Evans (1984: 132), as pre-experience, since the students have never engaged in real-world communicative tasks in the content area. Nor have I as a language teacher. The involvement of the law lecturers is therefore crucial in terms of syllabus design and lesson preparation, as well as course presentation.

Although it was a two-month programme due to the schedule of my research, CBI classes were offered every day with 80 to 120 minutes for each lesson (see Appendix II). As can be seen in Appendix II, one third of the time was spent on teaching while two thirds was spent on supervision. The supervision was the time when the programme students study independently without teachers' active interference. There

was no formal presentation or other group activities. The language and the content teachers were, however, ready to provide linguistic, academic and strategic help whenever required by the students, on an individual basis.

This chapter consists of five sections. The practice of CBI in further and higher education in China is introduced in the first section, which includes course books, teacher preparation and participants' reactions to CBI. Section two aims to introduce the background of the case study including the institutional context of WLC as a college education setting, student population and a profile of the teaching staff in WLC. Sections three and four provide detailed information about course procedures, students' progress and teachers' involvement at each stage of the CBI programme in WLC. Features of the programme are summarized in section five of this chapter.

3.1 Practice of CBI in further and higher education in China

As introduced in chapter one, the history of CBI in China can be traced back to the nineteenth century, although the approach is carried out in different forms and the features of the settings vary. It is the aim of this section to introduce the practice of CBI in China in terms of course materials, teacher preparation and the participants' reaction to the approach.

3.1.1   course books

Course books are the 'core' in most education settings in China. They are widely and frequently used in and outside the classroom as the guide to teaching and learning. Students are offered one course book for each regular schooling subject except some optional courses. These books are distributed to each student on the day when the new term starts. Concerning CBI, mainly three types of text books are used in further and higher education in China: translated versions of L1 content books, teacher developed books and books with imported copyright (see table 3.1).

Book type	Teaching objective	Institution	Students' age	Teachers
Translated L1 content books	Language	Colleges	16 to18 years of age	Language teachers
Teacher developed CBI course books	Content and/or Language	Colleges and universities	16 to18 & 18 to 22 age group	Language or Content teachers
Course books of imported copyright	Content	Universities	18 to 22 years of age	Content teachers or language teachers with content training

Table 3.1 Three types of CBI course books used in
Chinese further and higher education

3.1.1.1 Translated L1 content books

The translated versions of students' L1 content books are normally published by the

People's Education Press. These L2 or English content books are used in private

schools, without an official evaluation of the effectiveness. The related teaching is

normally for content and language purposes. Some universities have introduced these

books into students' language classrooms. For example, an English version of middle

school mathematics is used in English classes for mathematics students in their first

semester in Hubei Open University. Language in this type of books is accommodated

to the students' present level, while content complexity is also reduced. The aim is to

provide students with comprehensible L2 input in the content area without increasing

their workload. L1 teachers as the users of this kind of content book may also feel

less stressed.

3.1.1.2 Teacher-developed course books

Teacher-selected or teacher-developed books are most popular in college-level

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education settings. Unlike primary or intermediate teaching materials which are approved and issued by the State Ministry of Education, there is no official guidance for the college-level curriculum. Course books for university students are hardly applicable to college students since those materials are normally produced by leading universities for tertiary education. This means that college teachers need to select or develop course books according to students' specific need and subject proficiency, as well as their level of language proficiency.

To select a course book can be as challenging as to develop one. This is mainly because there is a limited supply of books for college students. Although many teachers tend to use commercial materials that are content-specific and closely related to students' current language and academic competence, they still develop their own curriculum and teaching plan through collective use of a set of selected materials.

The difficulty in developing a CBI course book lies in the limited supply of valid resources. Most L2 content materials in the library are, according to college teachers, out of date. The academic authority of many on-line materials needs to be proved and therefore can only be used as references. Copyright is the major concern when a large amount of quoting is needed to develop course materials.

Interdisciplinary collaboration is recommended to resolve difficulties and problems during course book development. Teachers from the language and the content departments should make the most of their expertise and develop an integrative course book on the basis of students' previous experience and present level of competence. These kinds of materials are better related to students' background and focused on their actual needs.

3.1.1.3 Books of imported copyright

The books of imported copyright are generally used for university students to learn content knowledge at an international level. Content mastery is the main focus of university CBI classes. CBI teachers are normally from the content department.

The original teaching materials written in English are for students who are native speakers of the language. These materials are normally expensive to purchase. On the suggestion of scholars in language and content areas, the Ministry of Education in China started to import copyright of some original text books and materials. For example, *Calculus* (Varberg, *et al,* 2002) is used for mathematics students in Huazhong University of Science and Technology, and *Java: How to Program* (Deitel and Deitel, 2002) is the core text book for students of computer science in Central China Normal University. Many students find these materials challenging and motivating due to high originality and authenticity. As for students with less advanced language ability, much more effort needs to be invested by both the teachers and the learners.

The three types of teaching materials used for Chinese college and university students reveal a different balance between language and content. The balance difference is also related to teacher resources in CBI classes.

3.1.2   Teacher preparation

Although CBI is encouraged by the government, hardly any specific training has been given to the teaching staff. In other words, very few Chinese CBI teachers have received formal and systematic education in CBI as a new approach (Zhao, 2004). Currently there are two resources of CBI teachers: the external resource and the internal resource. The external resource refers to content experts who are native speakers of English. They are, in most cases, visiting lecturers with a one-year

contract with the university. The internal resource refers to Chinese teachers who share a mother tongue with their students. These teachers can be from either the content or the language department.

3.1.2.1 External resource

Foreign experts are skilled in specific content areas and in English as the target language of Chinese students. To a certain extent, these visiting experts contribute more to students' EFL development than to their academic success. Language attracts more notice in classes provided by foreign lecturers. Chinese colleges and universities provide rich L1 content resources and a large number of Chinese content experts. L2 content materials are in limited supply. L2 content classes with foreign experts are regarded as of high linguistic benefit to the students. Since English is the only language used for teacher-student communication, students are pushed to produce comprehensible L2 output. Authentic L2 communication is viewed as the main attraction of classes run by the foreign teachers.

Another contribution of visiting experts lies in CBI staff development. According to the data collected through interviews with university CBI teachers, Chinese content teachers seldom consult language faculty with linguistic problems in their classes. They insist that consulting and communicating with the foreign experts is a more effective way of learning accurate L2 expressions in the content field.

An increasing number of foreign teachers are invited for bilingual education in primary and secondary schools in China. These teachers are also desirable in college education settings. By contrast, many Chinese universities tend to employ domestic teaching staff even in CBI courses. There are mainly three reasons for this current tendency. First, there are an increasing number of Chinese content experts with high English language proficiency. The majority of this teacher group have received a Master's or PhD degree in universities in English speaking countries. Secondly, the

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foreign experts lack adequate knowledge about the Chinese educational system and culture, which may affect the pedagogical impact of their classes. Economic reasons also account for the preference for domestic teaching staff. Visiting lecturers are normally paid twice as much as Chinese teachers in China.

3.1.2.2 Internal / Domestic resource

The domestic resource of CBI teaching staff refers to teachers as native speakers of the students' mother tongue. They are from either the language or the content faculties. Being non-native English speaking teachers (Non-NESTs), they may also provide effective help to develop students' English language abilities. As pointed out by Medgyes (2005: 45), there is a bright side of being Non-NESTs because they can:

1. provide a better learner model;
2. teach language-learning strategies more effectively;
3. supply more information about the English language;
4. better anticipate and prevent language difficulties;
5. be more sensitive to their students;
6. benefit from their ability to use the students' mother tongue.

All of these points are highly relevant to the Chinese situation in general and to the CBI programme at WLC in particular. According to the CBI programme at WLC as well as interviews before the programme, non-NESTs also have a better understanding to the local educational culture than NESTs. By fluently switching between students' L1 and L2, non-NESTs stand a better chance of balancing the language skills and content information introduced in CBI classes.

Most college CBI teachers are from the language department. They build competence in the content area by attending content lectures or through content-area literature and on-line resources. In their CBI classes, more emphasis may be placed on

language skills due to the teachers' occasional uncertainty in some content-related knowledge and information.

In university settings, most of CBI teachers are content teachers with competent English language proficiency, which is built during the process of their professional development or due to their experience of English-medium content subject study. Selection of CBI teachers is based on a strict judgement by English specialists and experts in the relevant content field. Although these lecturers normally receive double payment, many of them feel reluctant to take the position. As some teachers claimed in interviews before my CBI programme, they need more time and energy for academic research.

3.1.3   Participants' reactions to CBI

Being new and having official approval are the two strong points of CBI in China. The 'honeymoon' has just begun. A harmonious combination of CBI and education in China certainly depends on a positive attitude. However, real life is serious and not always as sweet as honeymoons. It is the focus of this section to introduce some negative reaction from the CBI teachers and students. The purpose is to add some cold water to the heat generated by CBI so as to provide a realistic background for an effective application of the approach in China.

3.1.3.1   Students are frustrated

English-medium content teaching is attractive to students at the first stage. They are interested in this type of instruction, thinking that they might learn both the language and the content in one class. Nonetheless, 100 per cent English communication is hard to realise. Despite 'English only' as an administrative requirement for these classes, students ask for Chinese illustration when most of them, good or bad learners,

cannot understand the complicated content knowledge delivered in English. Most of the students believe that content is what they want to learn, although through English rather than their L1. Those who possess very limited English proficiency finally tend to ignore in-class teaching. They find it more effective and realistic to read L1 content texts.

Many teachers believe that difficulty in understanding the L2 content teacher is the pain that all the learners have to suffer before reaching a proficient academic language level. However, considering that students are entitled to comprehensible input, most of them resort to L1 whenever there is such a demand by the students (from personal communication with university CBI teachers).

3.1.3.2 Teachers complain

As mentioned previously, CBI teachers receive double payment in most of the universities in China. However, the increased pressure and workload make these teachers give up the high reward. Many of them prefer to concentrate on research in their own field.

CBI teachers from either language or content faculties have to invest much time and effort in the other area. Even to those who are competent in both English language and the content concerned, teaching techniques demanded in CBI classrooms and students' competence are their major concern. A CBI teacher in China once said:

> Personally, I have no problem with teaching Computer Science and Technology in English. However, I do worry a lot about how much my students can understand when it is illustrated in a language that they are not familiar with.
>
> (Translated from personal communication)

3.2 Background of the case study

The aim of this section is not only to introduce the background of the CBI programme in WLC, but also to illustrate the desirability and feasibility of CBI in WLC. The context in WLC, as the macro-background of the case study, points to the necessity of integrating language learning with students' subject matter study. The particular population of students in WLC, as the micro-background, indicates that the CBI approach may be feasible for college students whose present subject matter study is closely related to their future career. Finally in this section, a profile of the teaching staff indicates the possibility of CBI in WLC in terms of teacher preparation.

3.2.1 The institutional context of WLC

Wuhan Law College was established in 1982 under the administration of the Judicial Ministry of China. The students are graduates of junior secondary schools. All the students are studying law as their major subject. Chinese, the students' L1, is the only medium for communication in all the content classes, except English classes. The teaching mode and course materials used in English classes are mostly based on traditional methods including grammar-translation and aimed at language use for general purposes.

A set of factors differentiates the CBI programme in WLC from the integrated language-content courses for international students that are often found in British universities (e.g. Dudley-Evans, 1984; Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1980; Dudley-Evans & Johns, 1981). These factors include:

3.2.1.1   Content and language teachers share the same L1 with the students.

Like many other colleges and universities in China, the teachers and students in

WLC originally have various local accents and dialects. However, they share Mandarin Chinese, which is also called Pu Tong Hua, as the only language used for general communications. This is because Mandarin is the official and standard language of the country, and the language is also understood nation-wide. English, as a foreign language in China, is scarcely used in content classes. Even in English classes, most of the spoken interaction, including the introduction of linguistic rules, is conducted in Chinese. English language is used only when teachers and students have no other choice, for example, when reading the English text material, doing Chinese-English translation and filling blanks in an English text.

This factor indicates that, unlike the English-only teacher-student communication in English speaking countries, the use of Chinese is taken for granted in many language classes in China. On the one hand, language teachers tend to use Chinese to introduce lexical, syntactical and grammatical features for the sake of effective communication. Eventually they end up using Chinese more frequently than English because the former maximises student reaction. On the other hand, the students, despite their language proficiency, feel embarrassed when they talk in English even in language classes because it sounds "strange and unnatural".

3.2.1.2   All the subject matter courses are taught in L1.

In college-level education in China, all the content subjects are taught in Chinese. The teachers have to pass the test of standard Pu Tong Hua before they are qualified to teach. This qualification is also required of the English language teachers in order to make sure they are understood when Chinese is used for classroom communication.

It is worth mentioning here that once the language teachers are employed by the college, their language teaching techniques are considered more important than their proficiency in the English language itself. The only language exam they are required

to take is a test of their second foreign language proficiency (e.g. French, Japanese, and Russian, etc). Although this test is compulsory for promotion, it is questioned by a number of language teachers since the second foreign language is rarely used either for their teaching profession or in interpersonal communication.

3.2.1.3   English is introduced as a compulsory subject.

English is not the medium of subject matter study for college students in China; however, the importance of English as an international language is well recognized by the central government. Since 1977 English has been taught as a compulsory subject in China, from primary schooling to university education (Boyle, 2000). The educational policy of compulsory English learning might have provided some Chinese with a 'neutral language for commerce' and a 'standard currency of international travel and communication' (Bowers, 1996: 3).

However, for most students in WLC, as well as those who are studying in other colleges in China, there is a dilemma of motivation for English language learning. On the one hand, they are required to learn English. This means the students have to learn the language even if they do not like it or they are not going to use what they have learned from the language classes. On the other hand, most students are fascinated by the wide use of English in global communication. They want to learn the language. However, it is hard for them do decide what to learn and how. The frustration is shown by a student representative during a meeting before the CBI programme. As he says,

> I know English is the only language that is widely used all over the world. However, I
>
> cannot see that it makes much difference to my own life. I work hard on it just to get good
>
> marks in exams. I am sure I will forget all about my language knowledge once I finish my
>
> schooling, and I will not be interested in it any more.

(Translation from the L1 conversation)

Concerning how to learn English, the student says,

> We know that learning strategies are very important in English study. We need them to learn
> English better and faster. The teachers also advise us to pay more attention to learning
> strategies. However, we don't know what they really are. We ask our teachers and fellow
> students, and even buy books on learning strategies. But we still do what we normally did
> in our English study. All that is in our minds is to get the job done.

<div align="right">(Translation from the L1 conversation)</div>

Language teachers also face a dilemma between what to teach and how. The same as students in many other Chinese colleges, the WLC students do not have to take the national entrance examinations for university education. They can get the certificate if they pass the English language tests designed by their own teachers. This situation relieves the college language teaching from the standardised English examination. However, the language teachers are lost in this pedagogical freedom. On the one hand, traditional approaches seem easier due to their familiarity with the materials, course design and the fixed format of assessment. Moreover, traditional approaches seem effective in introducing linguistic knowledge including grammatical rules, sentence structure and word formation, which is the core of traditional English language exams.

On the other hand, other non-traditional approaches including CLT (communicative language teaching) and CBI may have more potential in college education. First of all, the major content subjects that college students are learning are closely related to their future job. For example, law is the main subject of all the students in WLC. Most of them are going to work in the judicial field when they graduate. This means language classes in WLC can well be focused on law rather than other fields. The focused language teaching through the CBI approach may be motivating for students.

For language teachers, however, it means more challenges in terms of the curriculum, course design, teaching materials and assessment etc. Students' limited language proficiency is also a large concern. To a certain extent, CBI creates a conflict between the students' need and the teachers' provision.

3.2.1.4   English is rarely used by the learners for their real-world personal or professional purposes.

As mentioned previously in this section, Chinese is the predominant language in all college content courses. Even in language classes, students read, listen, speak and write in English solely for the sake of learning English as a linguistic 'code'. The language teachers' over-accommodation to students' present language proficiency reduces the learners' practice opportunities.

Another reason for the students' rare use of English is the lack of real-life opportunities. Not many students will go abroad for further education or engage in international trade. In the meanwhile, competition for working in international firms still remains strong. Most of the students, after college and university education, will stay in China, as there are many employment opportunities for them. A higher level of English language proficiency may enhance the chance of employment, but cannot guarantee it. Very few WLC students will have the opportunity to use English in their everyday lives. For those who may use English in the future for professional or academic purposes, training courses in English for specific purposes may be helpful. However, these courses are normally organised by agencies and are open to professionals rather than students.

In sum, this outline of the institutional context of WLC reveals a situation whereby students are required to learn English, but the English they have learned in traditional language classes may not be used effectively in real life. Therefore, it might be sensible for language classes to integrate some subject knowledge that the students are concurrently learning. A major advantage of this integration lies in its

potential to enhance the students' motivation for English language learning. In China as an EFL context, most students would rather learn the language skills that have some realistic value in their future professions. In pedagogical practice, however, is language-content integration merely the teachers' fantasy or their pedagogical accommodation to the educational policy of the country? The outcome and analysis of the CBI programme in WLC may provide some answers.

3.2.2 Student population

As reflected by the pre-programme questionnaire (see Appendix IV), students choose to study at WLC as a professional institute out of their free will and personal interest. First of all, most of these students have little chance to pass the national entrance for university education. Therefore, they choose to attend colleges rather than junior high schools for further education in China. Secondly, without the national examination pressure, they can concentrate on their major subject, i.e. law. This new subject also provides a new start for all the students, indicating no inferiority or superiority arising from their previous study. A third reason for them to study in WLC stems from the high social status of the legal practitioners in China. Most graduates of WLC will be working as assistants and secretaries of courts and law offices. During this period, they can prepare for the national qualification examination of legal professionals, which is essential for those who want to work as lawyers, judges and public persecutors. They may also choose to work for big firms and companies as legal personnel.

The age of students in WLC is between 16 and 18. Before enrolling in this college, they have received at least three years of formal education in English as a subject. However, their English language proficiency is not as advanced as senior secondary students, for whom the national entrance exam for university education is the target of their present study. College students in China may take the national English test (NET). However, this test is not a must for their graduation certificate as it is for

university students. This indicates that the ELT courses at colleges like WLC do not have to focus on general linguistic features including GPE-oriented lexical items and grammar rules.

According to factors mentioned above, integrating language teaching with students' subject matter study will not have a negative effect on their college education. On the contrary, the integrated approach, i.e. CBI, may provide a new route to effective English language learning since a) the language skills that are introduced in CBI classes might be more relevant to the students' professional needs, and b) the courses have a 'one stone' effect (Shaw, 1997), which means that students can learn the language and the content knowledge in CBI classes. During this particular process of language learning, students' content knowledge may be applied and therefore reinforced.

3.2.3   Teaching staff

The analysis of the student population and the pre-programme questionnaires for students in WLC indicate that there is a strong demand for combining students' language study with their present and future needs (Robinson, 1991). The present needs are related to their motivation for English language learning in WLC, while the future needs are related to their real-life career. In order to make the combination possible in college education settings, the issue of teaching staff should be taken into consideration.

According to the data provided by the administrative office, there are fifty teachers in WLC (see table 3.2). Among a total of twenty law teachers, six take administrative responsibilities. At the time of the CBI programme, all the law teachers in WLC had obtained a BA degree in law, while six had a Master's degree and one was studying for a PhD degree in law.

Compared to teaching staff in the two law departments, there are four English language teachers in WLC. They have all received a BA degree in English language and culture, while two have also obtained a diploma in law.

Although there is a remarkable difference in the number of EFL and law teaching staff, they share a similar work load on average. This is because the four language teachers are responsible for language classes only, while the twenty law lecturers have to cover the teaching in a series of legal subjects, from foundational legal theories and economic law to civil litigation. Therefore, teachers in language and law departments may have the same average workload of twelve lessons a week, although the number varies every semester. However, all the law teachers in WLC also work as solicitors for extra income and practical experience.

A comparison of population between language and law departments can also be seen from table 3.2 below.

	English department	Law departments	Other content departments
Number of teaching staff	4	20	26
Teaching staff with administrative responsibilities	0	6	3
Teaching staff with a bachelor degree	4	20	19
Teaching staff with a master degree	1	6	2
Number of teaching staff with a PhD degree	1 (in progress)	1 (in progress)	0

Table 3.2 Teachers population in WLC

As mentioned earlier in this section, two of the four language teachers in WLC have a diploma in law. However, a systematic knowledge of law is rarely demonstrated in

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their classes. By contrast, several teachers from content departments, e.g. law, IT and Chinese literature, have rich experience in teaching English, linked to a shortage of staff due to a large student population. Disregarding some pronunciation problems of these non-English specialists, their language classes have received positive feedback from the WLC students.

Although there has been no inter-disciplinary collaboration in WLC before the CBI programme, language classes presented by the non-English lecturers indicates a combination of language and content. As commented by these cross-disciplinary lecturers, a major reason for the popularity of their language classes is that this kind of classes is considered less boring since they are not linguistic-specific. Knowledge in law, computer science and Chinese literature introduced by content experts is the major attraction of these classes. As commented by the head of the teaching administration department in WLC, language classes presented by these non-English teachers are of greater interest and value to students since they take advantage of the teachers' content expertise.

The profile of teachers in the language and law departments in WLC implies the possibility of content (i.e. law) and language (i.e. English) integration in pedagogical practice. All of the law lecturers should possess a certain degree of English language skills since the National English Test (NET) 4 is a prerequisite for Bachelor's degrees in universities in China. Training opportunities in universities subsidised by WLC provide language teachers with convenient access to legal knowledge and information.

3.3 Preparations for the CBI programme in WLC

Being encouraged by good personal relationships with colleagues in the law departments in WLC and a strong belief in the effectiveness of the CBI approach, I decided to undertake a CBI programme in WLC. A series of activities including questionnaires, interviews and personal conversations were conducted before the

programme in order to secure administrative and pedagogical support.

3.3.1   Seeking administrative support

I maintained a good personal relationship with the administrative staff after nine years of working in WLC. However, a successful CBI programme was not possible without official administrative approval. It was not difficult to understand the concerns of administrative staff when approached about the CBI programme. First of all, the CBI approach remained unknown in WLC as well as many other colleges in China. Secondly, administrative approval may not necessarily guarantee cooperation from the law departments. Moreover, the limited English language proficiency of the WLC students was the major concern of the administrative staff for content and language integration. Last but by no means least, financial support was crucial due to materials and teachers' workload demanded by the programme.

In order to gain official approval, I conducted several personal conversations with the principal of WLC before starting the CBI programme. The main purpose was to establish confidence in the CBI approach and CBI teachers. In those conversations, I introduced my academic progress at Southampton University, including my interpretation of CBI.

Following the personal communications with the principal, I submitted a proposal of the programme (see Appendix I). In the proposal, I introduced the theme and duration of CBI in WLC, research problems concerned, requirements in student population, as well as the pedagogical demand on teachers and teaching materials. The proposal was photocopied and distributed to heads of other administrative and content departments. Overall support for the CBI programme was officially announced by the principal at the opening ceremony of the new semester.

The official approval from the principal did not automatically lead to the support

from each department. Every department was required to offer help. However, it was not clear to the staff what kind of help was needed and how they could help. Therefore, while keeping contact with the principal and deputy principals, I visited the college library to select and photocopy course materials. I also contacted the teaching administration department to book classrooms. At the same time, I made a request to be introduced to the students' union in order to get help with the programme posters and student recruitment.

Prior to and at the beginning of the CBI programme, I played the role of co-ordinator, contacting each department, searching for co-operators and arranging pre-programme activities, etc. During this process I realised that official approval would not bring about effective support without personal willingness of the staff. Personal relationships with the administrative staff and teachers from each department should always be taken into account in doing educational research. The effort before the programme proved to be a good investment:

3.3.1.1   The CBI programme was open as a supplementary course in WLC.

At the beginning, the principal in WLC was reluctant to open the CBI programme although she was personally willing to help with my research project. The principal's concern was understandable. In WLC, as well as in many other colleges in China, all the courses run by semester instead of by month. The two-month CBI programme therefore conflicted with the normal course arrangement in WLC. However, convinced by my theoretical knowledge of CBI and teaching experience in WLC, the principal was willing to offer me the opportunity. With regard to the curricular arrangements, the two-month CBI programme ran as a credit-free training course and was open to all the students at WLC.

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3.3.1.2 Full support was promised by the relevant departments.

Attaining the official approval was the first step in gaining a general support. In order for the smooth running of the CBI programme, close co-operation from each relevant department was needed. For example, the content teachers in the CBI team might not have been able to attend every meeting of their departments due to the time schedule of the CBI programme. They needed to have the permission from the department if they wanted to attend the CBI classes. After talking with the head of each law department, it was agreed that any CBI-related events should be prioritized over intra-departmental activities. Full support was also promised by staff from other departments. They agreed to the provision of free photocopying, classroom booking and the use of any facilities whenever needed. All this support proved crucial during the process of the CBI programme.

To show appreciation of their support, all members of staff in WLC were welcome to attend the CBI classes. The principal and academic departments were informed of the progress at each stage of the programme, either in writing or via conversation.

3.3.1.3 Students were well informed of the CBI programme.

The students at WLC were informed of purposes and the timetable of the CBI programme through posters (see Appendix II) and were encouraged to reflect on their language and content abilities when deciding to participate in the programme. With the help of the students' union, non-CBI programme students at WLC were informed of the progress of the programme through other channels in the college, such as internal radio and class meetings. As a result, 106 students joined the programme, although the number dropped to 36 at a later stage. Nonetheless, these 36 students attended all the courses provided by the programme.

3.3.2 Seeking pedagogical support

Along with the contact and communication with the staff in WLC, actions were also taken to seek academic and pedagogical support from both inside and outside the context of WLC. Two law lecturers from the law departments in WLC were contacted as potential CBI group members. Meanwhile, a set of interviews were conducted with CBI teachers from some colleges and universities in Wuhan, China. The interviews aimed at eliciting information on course materials, teacher resources and classroom activities in CBI classes.

Frequent contact between the two law lectures and me in WLC was established in December, 2005, when I was still in the University of Southampton, U.K. One of them was from the department of criminal law and the other from the department of civil law. The contact was conducted in the form of on-line chat. The aim was to update information about the WLC students' content background and to establish a CBI team before the programme commenced. After the confirmation of their willingness and availability to participate in team teaching in the CBI programme, the contact started to focus more closely on the language and content background of the current student population at WLC. It was agreed that the first CBI group meeting would be held in January, 2006, when the new semester began.

The next step was to devote the majority of time and energy to interviews with teachers in other colleges and universities with experience in CBI. The focus was on pedagogical advice and suggestions.

The interviews (see Appendix III) were carried out a week before the new semester. Owing to the winter vacation, only six CBI lecturers were available. All the interviewees were introduced through friends and colleagues. Agreements on the time and place of the interviews were made through telephone contact. This way of booking an interview has its own advantages. First of all, genuine voices from the

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interviewer and interviewee may help reduce the distance between them as strangers. In addition, it helps to receive quick and straightforward replies compared to communication by e-mail or transferring messages via a third party. Moreover, telephones and mobile phones are more convenient and effective in dealing with unexpected changes and other emergencies. However, the contribution of e-mail and other communicative forms to long-term contact with the interviewee is by no means unimportant.

The first interview was conducted by strictly following the original structure designed in advance. That is, the interviewee provided information by answering a set of pre-determined questions on the list. The whole process took around forty-five minutes. Although I had received all the answers I wanted, it seemed that the information that had been collected through this interview was inadequate. For example, the interviewee answered question nine "Please specify the extent to which your students use English in their subject matter study" by arguing that

> Students are required to discuss content subjects in English, and their homework and
> projects are to be written in English as well. The reading materials used in class are all in
> English. However, only students with competent English proficiency are keen on and
> comfortable with talking about content information in English. Those with less advanced
> English are most likely quiet.
>
> (Transcribed and translated from the interview)

This answer revealed a scenario in a CBI class in this university. The interviewee, as the CBI teacher, had noticed students' different reactions to the approach. However, it was not implied in the answer whether the teacher had analysed the reason for the difference and therefore modified his teaching mode.

The second interviewee was a mathematic lecturer and had many years of teaching mathematics through the medium of English. Being an experienced CBI teacher, the

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interviewee seemed to know what kind of information I was specifically looking for. He took a look at my question list and agreed to have the conversation audio-recorded. The interview took over ninety minutes and the interviewee showed consistent enthusiasm during the process. Although questions in this interview remained the same as the first one, I was, most of the time, a listener apart from clarifying the information occasionally.

Being more familiar with the questions and expected answers, I withdrew the question list from the following interviews. Course materials, teaching techniques and students' reactions remained as the central topics. Personal details and educational and professional background of the interviewees were clarified at the beginning and the end of the interviews. This form seemed more informative and appropriated for what I was aiming to do.

I interviewed the third interviewee at her home. She then introduced me to interviewees four, five and six as her friends and colleagues. The fourth interview was conducted at the interviewee's home later during that day. It was accomplished in a meeting room with concurrent attendance of interviewees five, six and their mutual friend interviewee three. Although the last two interviewees were interviewed one after the other, opportunities were offered for all the attendants to exchange opinions on particular topics. That is, a small-scale spontaneous discussion might take place when a mutually-concerned issue occurred among the interviewees or between the interviewer and the interviewees. This form of interview may be seen as conjunction of individual and group interviews.

On completion, interviews with different interviewees were transcribed separately since each of them represented a particular institution and CBI setting. Personal opinions of each interviewee expressed during the collective interview were recorded as part of the respective individual interview.

All the interviews were conducted in Chinese and audio-recorded with the permission of the interviewees. They also agreed that I could translate and transcribe the answers to all the questions in the list. Copies of interview reports were distributed to the interviewees for ethical reasons. Some interviewees did not wish their names to be identified, and some asked me not to reveal their comments on educational and political policies.

3.3.3 Student questionnaires for need analysis

One of the purposes of the pre-programme questionnaire (see Appendix IV) was to conduct a students' needs analysis. Questionnaires were distributed solely to 106 students who registered in the CBI programme. There were mainly two reasons for the control of the number: 1) a large number of questionnaires might add to the teachers' workload and make it difficult to provide an immediate response to all of them; and 2) questionnaires from programme students should be given priority since the aim of the research is to evaluate the effectiveness of the CBI approach.

The questionnaires were distributed and collected by the three CBI teachers (i.e. the two law lecturers and me) in person in a large classroom. This setting not only showed their appreciation for students' contribution but also provided a good chance for the first interactions between the CBI teachers and the programme students. When collecting the questionnaires, the teachers also took the opportunity to match each student with his/her name and particular needs indicated in the answers. As a result, the teachers were able to provide comments on some answers as soon as they finished collecting the questionnaires. This raised students' confidence in the teachers' enthusiasm and work efficiency, and therefore generated more interest in the future classes.

3.3.4 Eliciting disciplinary information in WLC

Inter-disciplinary co-operation is regarded as significant in content-language instruction. In WLC, there has not been any previous example of English-medium law classes. Detailed information about the teachers' attitudes towards the content and language integration was desirable and valuable to a successful CBI programme.

Questionnaires were the main means of gathering information on teachers' attitudes to the use of English to law students, as well as their attitudes to law and English integrated teaching. Eleven questions were asked in the questionnaire designed for the forty-six teachers from different content departments in WLC (see Appendix V). A lawyer who used to teach in WLC was invited to help with the pilot study. He finished the questionnaire in fifteen minutes. Bearing in mind that the law lecturers and practitioners in WLC might be too busy to take the questionnaires seriously, I chose thirty minutes before the regular meeting as my questionnaire time. Among the forty-six questionnaires, twenty were distributed to the law lectures in WLC with a full rate of response.

Data from the returned questionnaires were analysed and the results of the analysis were reported to the heads of the departments. After a short conversation with the heads of the two law departments, respectively, the civil law department and the criminal law department, informal interviews were booked to discuss questions arising from the questionnaires.

Since the theme of the CBI programme in WLC is rather legal English centred, teachers from other content departments including Chinese literature and history, etc. were not obliged to fill in the questionnaires. However, semi-structured interviews based on the questionnaires for law teachers were conducted with teachers from these departments but with English teaching experience.

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Questionnaires and interviews were also designed for language teachers from other colleges and universities in Wuhan (see Appendix VI). As a member of teaching staff and head of the language department, I believed that informal conversations with my former colleagues might be more appropriate. Therefore, communications with EFL teachers in WLC were conducted in the form of casual conversation, which was summarized in my work diaries afterwards.

3.3.5 Seeking for financial support

In WLC, as well as in many other colleges in China, the teachers' salary is a combination of a fixed payment and a payment based on the number of classes they are teaching. The rate varies according to their professional posts.

It might be hard for all the CBI teachers in WLC to receive a double payment, as CBI lecturers do in many Chinese universities. The two law lecturers in the CBI team expressed willingness to teach the courses voluntarily. Being the co-ordinator and based on my knowledge in CBI, I was aware of the potential heavy workload in the CBI programme in WLC. Therefore, efforts were made to convince the principal that the two law lecturers should receive normal payment for the CBI classes they attended during the programme. As a result, the three CBI teachers in the team all received the payment for the CBI courses at the end of the programme.

The CBI courses in WLC did not bear credit. In order to encourage students to enrol in the programme, administrative leaders in WLC agreed to make these courses free. Students with distinctive progress during the programme were rewarded prizes and certificates from the college.

Although finance was not always the central issue in research and teaching practice, the CBI programme in WLC would not be successful without the financial support

of the college. To a large extent, the financial support encouraged student enrolment and the teachers' effort was fairly rewarded.

3.4   Implementation of the CBI programme in WLC

There was frequent modification in the CBI course procedures in WLC. Adjustments were made in conjunction with the decisions of the CBI group meetings. Based on students' reactions to the integrated course, CBI teachers adjusted the teaching method and course procedures. This process of modification echoes McNiff's suggestions about action research (1988: 1), in which observer as participant is "a powerful method of bridging the gap between the theory and practice of education". It is the aim of this section to describe how a WLC-specific CBI model was established during the seven-week programme.

3.4.1   Initial stage (Weeks 1 and 2)

At the initial stage, all the pedagogical decisions were made through CBI group meetings. To a certain extent, advice and suggestions provided by CBI teachers from other colleges and universities had considerable impact on the group decision. For example, according to the interviews with experienced CBI teachers from some colleges and universities, it took time for the students to get use to this new approach. The teachers should be prepared for the students' panic when they had to manage to learn the language and the content at the same time, especially at the beginning stage of the CBI programme. Abrupt justification and accommodation at this stage were therefore not a recommendation. As a result, programme students' reactions were observed and analysed but not immediately responded to in the first two weeks of the CBI classes.

3.4.1.1 The first CBI group meeting

The first CBI group meeting was held on Monday morning of week one. Decisions were made about CBI team building, teaching mode, course materials, course schedule, course assessment, student enrolment and programme recording, etc.

a)   Group building

In addition to the three teachers as the teaching team, two students were accepted as members of the CBI group. These students proved to play a significant role in linking the CBI teaching team and the programme students.

At the beginning stage, the team building aimed to enhance students' responsibility and to reduce teachers' workload. One of the student members functioned as a representative of the programme students, reporting to the CBI group on students' reactions to and requirements for the CBI classes. She was responsible for checking students' attendance at each CBI class. The other student took the responsibility for programme reports. With his help, the progress of the CBI programme would be reported on time to all the other staff and students at WLC. He would also help to inform students of changes to the time and place for CBI classes.

b)   Team teaching

Another decision concerned the role of the language and the content teachers in the team. Although collaboration was central to the CBI team, clarifying the responsibilities encompassed in the team was regarded as important for high working efficiency.

As the language teacher, I myself worked as the leader of CBI teaching team. I took

the responsibility for materials selection, programme design and negotiations with the administrative departments. Law lecturers spent more energy on the appropriateness of content materials. They were also required to monitor the programme students' content development. Every CBI class had to be attended by the language teacher as the leading lecturer and one or, preferably, both of the content teachers for content support.

Both the language and the content teachers had a heavy workload during the CBI programme. As team leader, the language teacher selected legal materials based on the target language skills and features of the content course. As the main presenter of the CBI classes, the language teacher developed a general syllabus and teaching plan for each CBI lesson. As the supervisor of the programme, the language teacher marked students' writing, and shared the experience with content experts.

The main reason for appointing content lecturers as programme supporters was due to their existing heavy workload. Besides the CBI courses, both of the law lecturers had to teach ten law classes every week. The roles of content teachers were as content consultants, language learners, and programme advisors. As content consultants, they provided advice on the content information introduced by the language teacher. They also provided details of what the programme students had learned, were concurrently learning, and would learn in content classes. Sitting in the CBI classroom, the law lecturers developed their English language skills with the programme students. With their experience in content teaching and language learning, they therefore were able to provide valuable advice on the CBI course progress.

c)   Material selection

The CBI course material selection in WLC reflected the following three criteria: 1) students' academic and professional needs should take priority over the originality of the materials, although the significance of original texts should by no means be

ignored, 2) the materials selected should be helpful, interesting and useful and 3) the new content knowledge in the materials should be within students' reach, and the old should not be a repetition of what they had learned before the programme.

Because of students' limited English language proficiency, texts and materials for CBI courses in WLC were selected from *English for the Legal Profession* (Dong & Zhao, 1999) and *Legal English* (He, 1997). The former was chosen as the core material for students, since the language in the content texts of the book was adjusted to the level of college students in China. The latter, due to the difficulty of the language involved, was used as supplementary material for students with particular interest in English or with higher language proficiency. Trial reports and law cases in the two books provided exposure to original legal texts.

Since the CBI programme ran as a seven-week course, the course materials covered several law subjects instead of focusing on in-depth instruction in a particular area of law. Four legal units were selected in the CBI programme. The first unit, *Definition, classification, and sources of law* aimed to introduce general vocabulary and sentence structures used in the legal area. The units on *Lawyers* and *Contract formation and classification* were closely related to most programme students' future careers. Finally, the unit on *Civil litigation* extended students' vocabulary from substantive law to procedural law.

Appendix VII provides an overview of the whole CBI course. Appendices VIII to XII show the materials and teacher diary entries involved in the programme.

The four units covered several subjects in the regular content curriculum of WLC. Nonetheless, they were not simply a repetition of students' legal courses. Additional information on Western legal systems, for instance, lawyers and legal systems in the United States, as well as some classic law cases, including Marbury v. Madison (see Appendix XII), were applied for teaching and group discussion. It was expected that

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students should reinforce their legal knowledge, increase their law-specific English language skills, and develop their cognitive strategies in the CBI classes.

d) Course scheduling

Although the CBI programme received official approval from the administrative department, it could only be run as a set of supplementary courses rather than a regular subject in the curriculum. This was mainly because the term time in WLC, as well as in many other colleges and universities in China, was ten months, which would be divided equally into two semesters. The scheduling issue was therefore problematic. Another reason related to the administrator's uncertainty about running a CBI as a new approach in WLC.

Through the group meeting, the seven-week CBI programme was scheduled before and after regular subject classes. The unusual scheduling, as shown in table 3.3 as well as Appendix II, affected the student participation in the programme and added to the two law lecturers' workload. However, the full attendance of content lecturers was guaranteed since the CBI course ran when no other content classes were undergoing.

Monday	3.50pm---5.30pm	Room 608	Supervision
Tuesday	7.00pm---9.00pm	Room 608	Teaching
Wednesday	12.30pm---1.50pm	Room 608	Supervision
Thursday	2.00pm---3.40pm	Room 608	Teaching
Friday	12.30pm---1.50pm	Room 608	Supervision

Table 3.3 Timetable for the CBI programme in WLC

As shown in table 3.3, CBI courses were offered every day (Monday to Friday)

during the programme. Each class ran for 80 to 120 minutes with around 10 minutes break. However, not every CBI class was focused on teaching. As can be seen in table 1.3, two thirds of the CBI classes took place in the form of supervision. Teachers and students took the opportunity to ask questions. Questions from the teachers aimed to check students' development, whereas students asked questions for language and/or content assistance.

e)   Course assessment

As agreed by the CBI group, students would take a set of exams at the end of the programme. English language and law knowledge would be assessed as the form and content respectively in the exams. The four basic language skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing were involved in different forms of the tests.

The tests would be jointly marked by the language teacher and a law teacher. Firstly, students would be asked to give a five-minute oral presentation in English on a legal topic. English conversation with the language teacher might be involved during or after the short speech. The writing test would be on a similar topic to the spoken one. Students were required to reveal their own viewpoints on some legal issues in English. 250 words would be the limit of the length of the essay. A pen-and-paper test would be used to assess the students' law-based language proficiency. Vocabulary and sentence structures would be the focus of this type of test.

f)   Student enrolment

Students were informed of the CBI programme by poster (see Appendix II) before the programme. All the students at WLC were welcome to register on the programme. However, they were reminded to take into consideration their current language and content proficiency due to the potential challenge of the CBI classes.

In order to collect precise data collected for my research project, students who failed

to attend the CBI classes three times would not be taken into account for data evaluation. 36 out of 106 of the programme students continued to attend the classes. The reason for other students' dropping out was sought and by CBI teachers and is analysed in later in this section.

g)   Programme recording

Work diary was the main method to record the process and progress of the programme. Work diary also recorded themes from informal communications and notes taken from the group meetings. They were all used as a memory aid.

Due to the unavailability of the technical staff during the period of the CBI classes, no video recording was made for the programme. Nor was the teaching audio-recorded due to the length of each CBI class. However, digital pictures were taken by teachers in the CBI group when they were not teaching. These pictures might help to provide some vivid description of the programme.

3.4.1.2   CBI procedures at the initial stage

The first CBI class in WLC followed a strong form of the CBI approach. That is, the content subject was taught completely in English. Considering the students' unfamiliarity with the language, a general introduction to law was selected as the content of the first unit (i.e. *Definition, classification, and sources of law*). Moreover, the language for content teaching was modified and simplified to students' average level. In order to reduce the language difficulty, the teaching embraced elements found in the traditional EFL classroom. For example, teacher-led core text reading and word study were conducted before the delivery of the content. The rationale was that students could be more confident in content comprehension and discussion if they were familiar with the meaning and pronunciation of each word involved.

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The pedagogical methodology was also traditional at the beginning of the programme. The classroom activity followed the procedure of presentation, practice and production, as shown in table 3.4.

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Presentation in L2 by language teacher        │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Practice and production by students with      │
│ interventions by teachers                     │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Summary in L1 by content lecturer             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
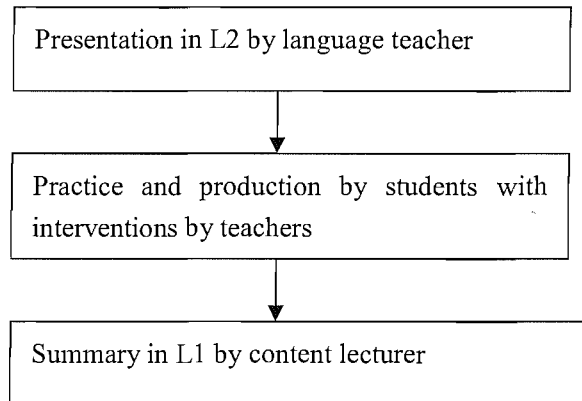
Table 3.4 Initial CBI procedures in WLC

During the stage of presentation, two types of knowledge were introduced: the language point and the content point (see table 3.5). The language point included English for specific academic (i.e. law in this case) purposes (ESAP) and English for general academic purposes (EGAP) (Blue, 1988). The former referred to legal terms that were obligatory for understanding legal texts, while the latter included linguistic structures that might also exist in texts in other academic disciplines. The content point included some conceptual and controversial issues involved in the legal area. The former focused on the illustration of legal concepts, while the latter aimed to foster critical skills including analysing, synthesising, comparing and contrasting, etc. Some controversial issues related to the content texts were introduced by teachers in order to encourage critical thinking at the initial stage of CBI.

Table 3.5 provides further explanation of content and language integration for the course presentation provided by the language teacher. The table was based on the core text and teaching plan applied in the first CBI class (See Appendix VIII).

Language point	ESAP items (e.g. tort, statute, legislation, etc.)		
	EGAP items (e.g. depend on, classify into, etc.)		
Content point	Conceptual issues (e.g. classification and sources of law)		
	Critical issues (e.g. why should law be classified? Compare legal systems between China and the United States.)		

Table 3.5 Content and language points presented by CBI teachers

After the presentation given by the language teacher, students were divided into groups of five to eight to practise the language and content knowledge acquired in the CBI class. In the first unit, for example, four topics were discussed concerning the definition, classification and sources of law, as well as the understanding of the statement that '*law is the instrument of change and the result of changes*' (a sentence in the original text). After discussion, a representative from each group was required to give an oral summary in English. To reduce the language difficulty in group discussion, linguistic and content prompts were provided by the CBI teachers in advance on the white board in the classroom.

The law lecturers started to intervene in the practice stage. They joined the group discussion as peer language learners and content assistants, discussing the content topics with the students in English and providing in-depth legal information in either English or Chinese depending on the complexity of the content. Chinese was used most of the time due to the students' preference and time pressure in the CBI class.

The control of the CBI class was then handed over to the law lecturers. The content knowledge was recalled and reinforced in L1 to ensure the accuracy of what had been presented in L2. Critical questions were asked such as '*what problems will be raised and avoided if the common law system is adopted in China?*', and practical tasks issued such as '*finding examples of law as the instrument of change, and as the result of changes*'. Students were encouraged to answer and discuss questions in English. However, priority was given to content meaning at the early stage of the

programme.

The content summary, however, was not always the ending of each CBI class at this stage. If there was some time left after the summary, students could be required to study and comment on the learning strategies of their peers. The purpose of strategy analysis was for students to generate learning strategies suitable for their individual situations. Study in learning strategies might take place in the form of either group discussion or learners' diaries.

3.4.1.3 Students' reaction

Originally, 106 students registered in the CBI programme. The number varied during the programme. Thirty-six students continued to attend the classes. The variation of the number was mainly due to the schedule of the CBI courses in the programme (as shown in table 3.3 on page174). Another reason lay in students' unfamiliarity with the teaching modes and procedures in CBI classes. They were either not confident with their language proficiency or not willing to spend extra time in the classroom.

Programme students showed great interest in and enthusiasm for the CBI approach from the stage of pre-programme questionnaires. They believed that language skills learned from the CBI classes would be helpful for their current content study and their future career. Therefore, they were better motivated to practise language skills in CBI classes than in traditional EFL classes (from learner diaries and personal communications with the students).

Enhanced motivation and enthusiasm, however, seemed not enough for an effective CBI class. There was still considerable addiction to the traditional grammar-translation approach. Students were reluctant to undertake any formal discussion in English until they were sure about the meaning of each word. They

would rather practise oral skills by reading the text on their own than talk with their peers in English. They also preferred to express their viewpoints in written form. As mentioned by some programme students, they felt that they could only speak in English when they thought they were ready. In most cases, to speak meant to be able to recite what they had written on paper in advance.

Many students dropped out of the programme because of the 'incredible difficulty and stress' in the CBI classes. They did not see the CBI classes "making a dramatic difference" and attributed the poor performance to their limited English language ability. A student's opinion was shared by most of those who left the programme early on:

> I registered on this programme because I really want to improve my English and I believe
> the combination of English language study and learning law is a great idea. However, after
> the first few classes, I cannot see I am improving at all. I do not want to disappoint my
> teacher with my poor performance. Why should I continue if the programme leads nowhere
> for me?
>
> (Excerpted from personal conversation with the student; Translation mine)

Since enrolment was entirely voluntary, students did not have to ask for permission to leave the programme. Due to the time limit and heavy workload, the CBI teachers did not invest much effort to persuade these students to continue their CBI classes. However, it was agreed by all the CBI team members including the student representatives that most of the students might benefit greatly if the programme bore credit and the students were obliged to stay until the end of the programme.

3.4.1.4 Students' progress

Most students had a low self-esteem about their English language proficiency and their development at this stage was not dramatic. However, the effect of initial CBI

classes was in fact quite encouraging. The teachers were delighted with students' improvement in a short period. A learner's diary (see figure 3.1 on page 182) was used as written evidence to illustrate students' progress during the programme. As suggested by members of CBI team as well as the student herself, this student's language product should be used to evaluate students' progress since it represented the general ability of all the programme students.

First of all, being able to compose a learning diary in English indicated a substantial development since most of the programme students' previous language production was limited to sentence level. In other words, none of these students had written a diary in English before.

It could also be seen from students' learning diaries (see Appendix VIII) that they had grasped the theme of the content text introduced in CBI classes, although some basic linguistic mistakes were made as a result of carelessness (According to personal conversations with the students). As a student wrote in the following diary, the *definition of law depends on its purposes or functions. Law is both (a) rules of conduct and a(n) instrument to resolve a dispute.*

Moreover, they started to acknowledge the importance of strategies in language and content learning, although strategies that they had recognised were at the preliminary level. As she claimed later in the diary, *the most important, I have learned that if want to learn English well, open mouth is very important.* It implied that producing oral output is a painful but meaningful stage for Chinese students as EFL learners. They needed or wanted to use the language fluently and accurately. However, much effort was required from the teachers and the learners.

Figure 3.1 Student's sample learning diary 1

This diary was transcribed as follows:

Diary

In the first class, I have learned something about law. For example, the definition of law depends on its purposes or functions. Law is both a rules of conduct and a instrument to resolve a dispute, it is also to enforce social justice.

The most important, I have learned that if want to learn English well, open mouth is very necessary and finish homework on time. I have learned some new words and word groups about law. English teacher let us see some pictures of English. Environment in English is very nice. I hope our city will be the same of England.

The effectiveness of CBI classes was also reflected by students' performance in content classrooms. As commented on by the two law lecturers in a CBI group meeting, programme students showed higher confidence than non-programme students and students who dropped out of the programme. They understood content materials more quickly and engaged more actively in group activities. According to the law lecturers, CBI classes gave students some broader background knowledge of the content area.

Programme students' better performance might not have resulted directly from the CBI approach itself. However, participating in the CBI programme, where a certain

degree of English-medium content teaching was involved, might have enhanced the students' self-esteem and elicited a feeling of being part of the elite. In a sense, programme students were self-motivated to outperform non-programme students.

The effectiveness of CBI classes at the initial stage proved that English as a medium of instruction could be an access rather than a barrier to content study. However, students' learning diaries also revealed very limited language and content output, which contrasted with the abundant input in the CBI class. Therefore, some changes were made after the first unit, which lasted for two weeks involving ten lessons including supervision.

3.4.1.5 Involvement of other language teachers and the content lecturers

At the initial stage, CBI classes also attracted the attention of teachers from other departments. Two teachers of Chinese literature attended the classes to learn the content and the language. They found it not difficult to understand the English language used in the CBI classes, and claimed that the course materials were very helpful. These visiting learners also provided valuable pedagogical advice. As suggested by one of the Chinese lecturers, more attention and commitment should be paid to group discussion. Students expected feedback on their performance, and their efforts for speaking as group representatives needed to be appreciated. Teachers' comments were important to students and therefore would be memorised by them. It was agreed by the CBI team that teachers' comments might enhance students' confidence and reinforce their memory about the knowledge involved in the language product. However, since group work was undertaken after the teacher's introduction, there might not always be enough time for teachers to comment after each student's presentation. The issue was resolved at the second stage with modification of the CBI procedures.

Although CBI classes were led by the language teacher, other teachers from the

language department were consistently absent during the programme. They did not attend any CBI class, nor did they contribute any pedagogical advice to the CBI programme. The feeling of resistance might derive from a sense of challenge and threat raised by content and language integration. Language teachers' attitudes to CBI is further analysed in chapter four.

3.4.2 *Progression and modification (weeks 3, 4 and 5)*

Experience from the first two weeks of CBI classes provided foundation for the modification of the CBI procedures. During the progress of the programme, CBI teachers' attitudes as action researchers increased the students' responsibility not only as course receivers but also as programme participants. In addition to observation and contact with programme students, CBI team meetings were held before and/or after each CBI class. Based on the teachers' and the students' feedbacks, teaching procedures were under continuous modification. Being influenced by the teachers' effort and enthusiasm, programme students made a great effort to learn the language and content. They also showed more interest in the research project and reflected on their progress during the programme.

3.4.2.1 Modification of the CBI procedures

There were continuous changes applied to the procedures in CBI classes due to course progress and student reactions. Although feedback from the students and the teachers from other departments was considered and analysed carefully, not all of the feedback was taken into account for changes of the course procedures. One reason for keeping a reasonable stability of CBI procedures was that it was not possible to respond to each individual participant's feedback with a immediate pedagogical change. The other reason was related to the teachers' cautiousness to over accommodating students' requirements. According to the experience of CBI teachers in other colleges and universities, a certain degree of difficulty might add reasonable

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pressure for the students to study harder and adjust their learning strategies. It took time for the students to get used to a new teaching model and acknowledge the benefits.

Based on the experience of the initial stage, systematic modifications of the CBI procedures took place between the third and the fifth weeks of the programme. These changes were made to enhance students' language opportunities and broaden their access to content information. A new form of course assessment was established after group meetings with student representatives.

Student oral presentations were the first change in CBI classes in order to provide more opportunities for students to 'open their mouth', i.e. start speaking in English. These presentations were designed as the start of each CBI class. Two to three students were nominated by the teacher to give a short speech (around five minutes). Oral presentations pushed the students to use English as the target language. Students with less advanced language proficiency had to spend more time learning the language outside the classroom context. The equal opportunities of presentation enhanced the average chances of language use by every student in CBI classes.

In order to encourage students to do the oral presentations, CBI classes allowed free choice on the topic of the presentation. At the beginning stage, non-content topics such as 'my favourite season of the year', 'my family' and 'an interesting film', etc., were very popular. These topics were regarded as less difficult since students could either compose a short paragraph on their own or simply recite a sample text from junior secondary English books.

After a few weeks' practice, students found the self-chosen topics boring due to the repetition of the content and limited space to develop their own opinions. From the fourth week, there was an increased range of content-related topics for student presentations. They found content-related presentations more authentic and therefore

interesting. Presenters found it easier to practise the language skills and discuss the content knowledge that they were learning in CBI classes

A second change in this period lay in the language used for classroom instruction. Pedagogical procedures at the early stage of CBI in WLC had proved fairly effective regarding students' language development and performance in content classes. However, teachers were concerned about students' dropping out of the programme. According to the feedback collected by CBI teachers and student representatives, the main reason was the language difficulty. As explained by a student interviewee,

> The English language used in the class was not really difficult; it is by no means easy either.
>
> Moreover, I can only concentrate for so much time on the language. I was terribly
>
> exhausted after the class.

(Translated from the L1 conversation)

From week three, Chinese, as the students' L1, was used by the CBI teachers to present complicated but fundamental content knowledge. The L1 was used not only to teach some content knowledge, but also appeared in Power Point to introduce content-related information (See Appendix VIII for example). The rationale behind the use of L1 is that appropriate resort to L1 might broaden students' access to content knowledge without increasing the language difficulty. The time and energy saved could be used for practice on key language items and content concepts embedded in the core text.

From this stage, the clear-cut distinction between EGAP and ESAP began to vanish in the CBI classes. Both the students' and the teachers' attention were on the content knowledge and the language used for interpreting the information (See Appendix IX for example). It was at this point, i.e. when the focus was fully on the knowledge itself, that language, no matter it was categorized as EGAP or ESAP, became a tool rather than a subject. The focused attention on content meaning helped the students to reinforce content knowledge and become familiar with the language involved in

content texts.

There was no linguistic emphasis on the meanings and structures of the new words. For example, in the unit on 'contract formation and classification', there was a statement that

> A contract is a manifestation of the mutual assent of the parties.
>
> <div align="right">(Dong and Zhao, 1999: 165)</div>

Instead of guiding the students to study the meaning of the words *manifestation*, *mutual* and *assent*, the teacher explained the sentence in English by saying that

> The validity of a contract is based on meeting of the minds. Or
>
> A contract is valid if one party accepts the offer of another party.   Or
>
> A contract may have legal effect when the contracting parties reach an agreement.

Some EGAP knowledge was taught through content-specific examples. Taking a sentence from the same unit as an example,

> The intention of the parties is determined not by what they think, but by their outward
>
> conduct; that is, by what each leads the other reasonably to believe.
>
> <div align="right">(Dong & Zhao, 1999: 165)</div>

The teacher explained the meaning and use of the phrase '*be determined by*' through sample sentences such as

> The definition of law *is decided by* how people look at its purposes and functions.
>
> The validity of a contract *depends on* the capacity of the parties.

The first sample sentence concerned the knowledge in the previous CBI unit, and the

second was related to what was delivered as the content of the present unit.

The two main changes of the CBI procedures at this stage (see table 3.6) aimed to reduce language teaching time and increase students' language using opportunities.

```
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Student Oral Presentation in L2                  │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        ▼
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Content Instruction by language teacher in       │
│ L1 + L2                                          │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        ▼
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Practice and Production by students in L2        │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
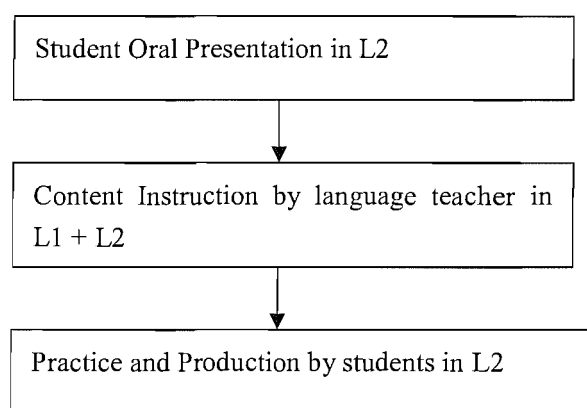
Table 3.6 Modified CBI procedures

As shown in the modified model (see table 3.6), students were encouraged to speak in English in oral presentations in the second phase of the programme. It was also in this phase that the L1 was used to reduce students' workload, i.e. stress. A formal L1 summary by content teachers was removed from the course procedures. However, the content teachers' role was by no means weakened since the increased student practice time made the teachers' facilitation more desirable.

In addition to the modification of CBI procedures, another change was made so as to maintain a reasonable number of students in the programme. After consulting student representatives and other programme students, CBI teachers found that students dropped out of the programme not only because of the challenge raised by English-medium instruction, but also due to the fear of examinations.

As mentioned previously, the CBI programme in WLC was non credit-bearing.

Students who passed the end-of-programme exams would be issued with a certificate of legal English proficiency from the college. However, most programme students worried that their effort for the CBI classes could be fruitless if they did not pass the exams. As a result of a decision made by the CBI team, all the formal exams were removed from the programme. Instead, any forms of student performance, including oral presentation, group discussion, learning diaries, etc would be taken into account for course assessment. Students were also encouraged to evaluate their own progress and report to CBI teachers.

3.4.2.2 Students' reactions

Students felt more comfortable with the modified CBI procedures. The long duration of each CBI class (80 to 120 minutes compared with 45 minutes in regular classes) was by no means tiring to the students. As noted in my work diary,

> In the second half of today's lecture, a content teacher introduced in L1 some background information on lawyers in China and the United States, which is the topic for the next lesson. Students, in spite of over an hour's CBI course, remained enthusiastic.

The combination of L1 and L2 used for the teaching at this stage reduced the students' pressure. Cancellation of end-of-programme exams indicated that the students' performance would be evaluated according to their actual effort rather than the exam results. Being relieved from the pressure of tests, students were encouraged to concentrate on their own performance instead of guessing what the teachers might test in the exams. This way of assessment was regarded by students as fairer than exams. As a result, they engaged more actively in classroom activities. It seemed that students were still pushed to learn. At the same time, however, they also were willing to learn since they would see a fair reward for their efforts. As reported in my diary,

One student gave the oral presentation without a written draft in their hands. Moreover, two students offered to do it for the next session.

The modification of teaching procedures also changed students' attitudes to the programme. At the beginning, the CBI programme was regarded as a set of training courses. Students attended the classes, joined in the group activities and did the homework. They played a role of no more than passive knowledge receivers. The programme was merely an extra chance for them to learn the language and the content.

During the process of the CBI programme, students witnessed the teachers' effort to seek an appropriate teaching method. They also realised how seriously their feedback and reactions were treated by CBI teachers. In return, they expressed their gain, need and other feedback in the form of learners' diaries, e-mails and personal conversations, etc. In this sense, students became active participants in the CBI programme. They showed their concern for the success of the programme and their willingness to contribute to the research. In other words, students played the roles as learners and research participants.

3.4.2.3 Students' progress

With more opportunities to practise their English, students made progress in speaking, which was their weak point in traditional language classes. In oral presentations, for example, an increasing number of students started to talk about content information acquired in CBI classes, with apparent ease. Many students expressed a wish to speak standard or native-like English during informal conversations with CBI teachers. However, not much time was spent by the teacher on correcting students' pronunciation in CBI classes since it did not cause difficulty in understanding the content meaning.

Students' English writing abilities also developed remarkably. Most students' diary entries were around 180 words, though they tended to be somewhat shorter at the beginning of the course and rather longer as the course progressed. A diary entry of the previously mentioned student might serve as a good example. Compared with 102 words in her diary at the initial stage, the student produced a learning diary entry of 212 words (see figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2 Student's sample learning diary 2

The following is the transcription of this diary:

Study Report

Introduction: Through lesson 3, I have learned contract formation, contract classification and what's the contract.

I.   Contract Formation

The contract has two parts. They are offer and acceptance. One party make an offer, another one accept an offer. It must be reached on mutual assent. The contracting parties must have legal capacity, if one party lacks this capacity, the contract will be void contract or voidable contract. Those people generally involve minors, mental independents, intoxicated persons and drug addicts. There are some contracts because fraud, duress, unconsiderabilities, misrepresentation and unjust enrichment to being void or voidable.

II.   Contract Classification

The contract has four forms, they are expressed, implied, orally and spoken. The implied involve implied-in-fact and implied-in-law. The form may also affect the contract's validity. According to performance, contract is divided into executed and executor. According to the promise, contract is divided into bilateral and unilateral. According to validity, contract is divided into valid, void, voidable and unenforceable.

Summary: Through this knowledge, I know that what's the contract. Contract is a set of civil conducts. It is formed through offers and acceptances. It is by meeting of the minds.

These are my understand. There are other things need to know, but I will try my hard to learn them.

The student also showed a certain degree of content development in the diary. She gave a full introduction about the participants of a contract, a detailed description of the process of forming a contract and the legal capacity of the parties. The language items including legal terms and sentence structures were also applied correctly in the learning diary. A large amount of work was needed to increase students' academic writing and related linguistic skills. However, time was an issue since the CBI teachers and students concentrated more on the content knowledge at this stage.

The other two language skills, i.e. reading and listening, still needed to be developed. The teacher had to reduce the speaking speed when delivering content information in English, or switch to Chinese. In terms of reading, some students still struggled with the spellings and pronunciations of each new word in order to understand the meaning of long sentences.

Programme students' performance in content classes was also impressive. According

to the two law lecturers in the CBI team, CBI students were more active in content classes. Content knowledge gained and reinforced in CBI classes facilitated their interpretation of regulations and definitions in content areas. Therefore, they were confident in accomplishing content tasks and homework compared with most non-programme students.

Students' cognitive growth during this period was mainly reflected by their diaries and study reports. As seen from the sample diary (figure 3.2 on page 191), there was still a long way to go before the students achieved a high level of academic writing. However, they started to show increased abilities in synthesizing and summarizing. Moreover, students realised the difference between Chinese and English academic writing through the study of authentic content texts in CBI classes. As shown in the sample learning diary 2, the student composed a study report by introducing the main argument before presenting the evidences. This way of writing is different from or opposite to writing a Chinese article.

3.4.2.4   Cooperation of content teachers

It seemed that some previous roles of content teachers ceased in the modified procedures. No formal content instruction was offered by the two lecturers from the law departments.   Neither did they have regular opportunities to summarise the content knowledge in L1. However, collaboration from content teachers was by no means reduced. In fact, support from the content lecturers was even more important in the modified CBI classes.

At this stage, the two law lecturers contributed their own teaching plans concerning the content knowledge and pedagogical advice before each CBI class. These teaching plans were highly valuable for the language teacher as the main course presenter. In a sense, knowledge delivered in the CBI classes was based on the joint contribution of the content and the language teachers.

The role of content lecturers as assistants in CBI courses became more noticeable in students' practice and production. Since the basic content knowledge was interpreted and delivered by the language teacher, students' questions at this stage demanded rich content-area information and working experience in the legal field. Content teachers' attendance and assistance in CBI classes were therefore essential.

Since the two content lecturers also taught programme students in law classes, they were able to provide feedback on programme students' content demands and development. With their help, content knowledge introduced in CBI classes was connected to students' subject matter study.

In sum, the teachers from the law departments played a central role in course preparation and course assessment at this stage. Their role as teaching assistants appeared to be even more important since more content-related questions were raised due to the increased student practice time.

3.4.3 Final stage: Establishment of WLC-specific CBI model (weeks 6 and 7)

As revealed in the previous sections, the first two weeks of the CBI programme in WLC were dedicated to building a constructive environment among the teachers and the learners. The initial framework of CBI procedures was based on the teachers' previous pedagogical experience. Students' reactions to CBI classes were highly valued throughout the programme. According to the feedback from students and content lecturers, as well as experience accumulated at the initial stage, CBI procedures were modified during the following three weeks. The modification was conducted gradually and continuously. It was during the last two weeks that the procedures were developed to a WLC-specific CBI model, although this model was by no means final and must be subject to further research and practice.

3.4.3.1 Modified CBI procedures

A feature of the modified procedures in the WLC programme was the increased opportunities that students had to communicate in English. This feature was reflected by the student-led content-based communication as a new procedure added to the WLC model. Three main factors contributed to the new procedure in CBI classes at this stage: students' development during the second stage (i.e. weeks three, four and five) of the CBI programme, learners' diaries and advice from other content teachers at the initial stage.

According to the group meeting at the end of the second stage of the programme, students' skills in L2 reading remained limited. They found it hard to read the supplementary materials recommended by teachers with full understanding. The limited reading ability also hindered the students' development in academic writing. Students needed wider access to authentic content materials.

The issue of reading materials was resolved when a programme student's diary caught the teacher's attention. As was noted in my work diary:

> A student's diary was very interesting. It seemed to me that the diary was copied from somewhere else. After talking with the student, I was told that it was from an article on the internet. I was glad that the students started to find other resources for content information in English. However, I was concerned about how much they could learn when they were copying these ideas with little paraphrasing.

Although students should not be encouraged to copy others' idea as the major part of their assignment, seeking references might be a good way of broadening the students' exposure to the L2 content information. Being inspired by this finding, teachers started to encourage students to prepare their own reading materials for each CBI class. Collecting L2 articles from relevant journals, newspapers, other course books

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and websites was recommended. Content information provided by students through these sources enriched the content topic in CBI classes. This kind of information was introduced and discussed in L2 by students in the form of oral presentation (see table 3.6 on page 188). In order for all the students to share their materials, student-centred discussion was added after the presentations by their fellow learners (see table 3.7 on page 197).

The discussion (see Appendix X for example) was led by student presenters. Content teachers joined in when specific clarifications were needed. This also provided an effective way of commenting. As suggested by teachers from other content departments, comment should be given on student presentations. However, it was not practical for the CBI teachers to provide direct comments. Time was the first concern since most presentations required further discussion rather than a yes-or-no comment. Doubtlessly, a negative comment would have been discouraging to some of the students, while an over-positive one misleading.

Moreover, comments focusing on particular students' presentations were not always perceived as relevant by the others. It was not practical for CBI teachers to spend much time commenting on the presentations. Even several minutes of commenting and explanation on each presentation might be too short for the student him/herself as the presenter.

Last but not least, student-led discussion and student-prepared materials established an effective learning environment with the learners as leaders and participants. After the student oral presentation, all the other students were required to provide comment, discuss the topic, and compare the information that they had collected themselves from different sources. English language was preferred during the process of discussion.

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        Student oral presentation            │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                       │
                       ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Student-led content-based discussion      │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                       │
                       ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Content-based instruction by the L2 teacher│
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                       │
                       ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Students' refined language – content integrated output │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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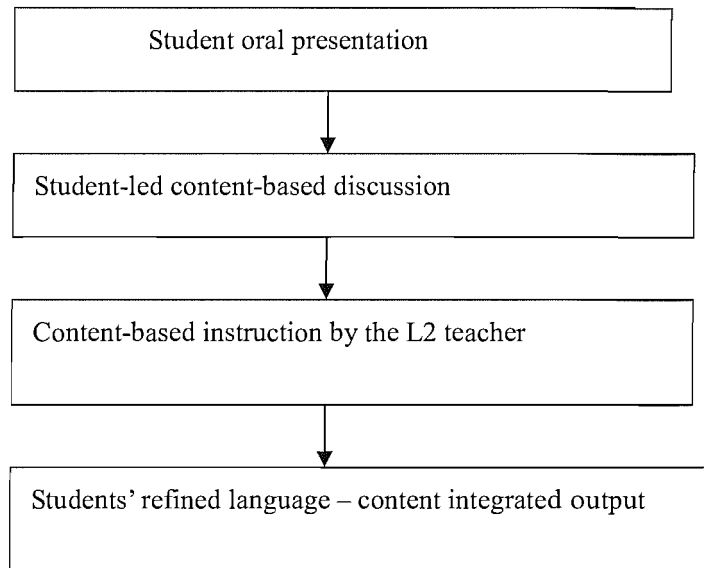
Table 3.7 WLC-specific CBI procedures

Content and language teachers played a role of assistants during student discussion. They supported the discussion with their respective specialties. Being equipped with content knowledge prepared before class, as well as information provided in content teachers' teaching plan, the language teacher was also able to answer most content related questions.

Although a small amount of language and content knowledge was introduced to individual groups to support the discussion, the core information was delivered by the language teacher after the group discussion. The instruction was based on the joint teaching plan with contribution from content lecturers. Texts in the course book were used to facilitate the teaching.

A traditional language approach was adopted by the language teacher in explaining the L2 content text. That is, each paragraph in the core text was explained sentence by sentence in order for most, if not all, students to understand the meaning. The theme of each paragraph was introduced by the language teacher in English before or after the explanation. The purpose was to reduce language difficulty and reinforce

content knowledge. The same as in the second stage of the programme, there was no separation between the ESAP and EGAP knowledge during the teaching as this stage.

After intensive explanation of the content text, students became the centre of the CBI class again. As group members or working individually, they were required to accomplish content-related tasks or exercises after each unit in the course book. They might also be asked to summarize in L2 what they had learnt in the class. The summary was either in the form of oral presentation or as a written study report.

3.4.3.2   Students' progress

By the final stage of the CBI programme in WLC, the students had achieved remarkable development in their language, content and cognitive skills. In addition to the learners' diaries and their in-class performance, the success of the programme was confirmed by students' responses to the end-of-programme questionnaires (see Appendix XIII) and by the content teachers' programme report (see Appendix XIV).

At this stage, students participated more actively in CBI classes. Those who had dropped out at the beginning of the programme came back to the CBI classroom. Programme students showed increased confidence in oral presentations. They made an effort to introduce content information elicited from self-prepared/collected materials. They also showed great interest in materials presented by other students.

Student-led discussions became academically and cognitively beneficial. During the study of the unit on *Lawyers*, for example, students started to question the role of lawyers in keeping social order and justice. There was a hot debate among them about the relationship between the judge and the lawyer. At the end of the discussion, the two content teachers were asked by programme students to compare the Chinese and British attorney systems.

Content-area information prepared for and demanded by the discussion enriched CBI classes. However, students' interest in content-related language knowledge was not diminished. In fact, many students turned to dictionaries and course materials for linguistic assistance when the language teacher was not available.

Figure 3.3 Student's sample learning diary 3

The diary was transcribed as follows:

Classification and roles of lawyers

This week I learned about lawyers. I am very interested in this job and want to be a lawyer in the future. In this report, I'd like to discuss classification and roles of lawyers.

Lawyers may be divided into several types. According to if the lawyers participate in a law suit, the

lawyers can be classified into trial lawyers and office-practice lawyer. Trial lawyer participates in a law suit, office-practice lawyer deals with matters such as preparing documents, advising business or settling estates. Office-practice lawyer never take part in a law suit, but leave litigation to trial lawyers.

According to the client, the lawyer can be classified into general practitioners and house councils. General practitioners may settle every matter that is brought to their offices. House councils are employed by business to assist in the internal operations of the company by preventing and solving legal issues.

Lawyers play a leading role in the society. First of all, they are advisors. Their advices may involve business decisions or family affairs. Second, lawyers are advocates for their clients. Third, lawyers are negotiators of compromise.

I have learned so much in this class. It is also combined with my major. I am looking forward to the next unit.

The improved content and language abilities were also revealed by students' diaries. As seen figure 3.3, there was a growth in the breadth and variety of content-related L2 vocabulary. Content information acquired in CBI classes was clearly synthesized and classified. It seemed that students were not very critical as far as the diary was concerned. However, that might be related to the students' cautiousness in producing written output. As said by the student in an informal conversation,

> Criticality is certainly a significant component in good academic writing. However, since it is in written form, we should be more cautious about what we write. This is especially true for the legal profession. Secondly, personal opinions are subjective, but they should not be confusing or misleading. We should be responsible for the readers and for ourselves as the writers.

> I am not saying we should not be critical. I just do not think I am able to be at the moment. Therefore, I will work harder to develop my abilities in English language and law. I think I will be more critical when I am supported with sufficient content knowledge and professional experience.

(Translated from the original L1 conversation)

The end-of-programme questionnaires (see Appendix XIII) and a celebration held in the last CBI class helped to elicit information about students' cognitive improvement. Before the CBI programme, a learning strategy was an abstract concept. Most students knew the significance of learning strategies in effective and efficient learning. However, they lacked the opportunity to learn and practise those strategies. As said by a student before the CBI programme,

> We know that learning strategies are very important in English study. We need them to learn English better and faster. The teachers also advise us to pay more attention to learning strategies. However, we don't know what they really are. We ask our teachers and fellow students, and even buy books on learning strategies. But we still do what we normally did in our English study. All that is in our mind is to get the job done.

It was during the CBI programme that students started to practise learning strategies in language and content learning. They also realised that strategies functioned differently from one individual to another. Learning strategy was the most popular topic in the end-of-programme discussion. Students paid close attention to strategies introduced by teachers and their fellow students. They expected to establish their own strategic framework in the near future.

Students' cognitive growth was also recognized by teachers from the content departments. As stated in the reports of the two law teachers in the CBI team (see Appendix XIV), programme students participated in content classes with greater confidence and enthusiasm. With more accurate answers and better performance, these students enjoyed more positive feedback from the teachers. Negative feedback, on the other hand, was considered by them as guidance to the in-depth study of the related content issues. As commented by a content teacher, programme students' active engagement in classroom activities and their right attitudes to teachers' feedback helped to establish a constructive learning environment.

3.4.3.3 Reaction of content teachers and the administrative staff

As mentioned in previous sections, two law lecturers attended consistently during the programme. Apart from helping the language teacher with the content-based instruction, they also provided feedback on students' content development. At the final stage of the CBI programme, the two content teachers were asked to compose reports on their overall opinion about the programme (See Appendix XIV). The report revealed the influence of this CBI programme on the learners and the teachers.

As argued by one of the law lecturers in her report, it was encouraging to see that the students were actively involved in classroom interaction and developed their academic and cognitive skills in CBI classes. Both of the two law teachers agreed that the students enjoyed the programme because they felt needed not only as the learners in education practices but also as the participants in educational research. According to the content lecturer,

> Unlike other students, the programme students appreciate their opportunities of any form of classroom activities including individual presentations and group discussions. They engaged in various content-related tasks without being afraid of making mistakes. Effort invested by the CBI teachers also inspired the students. They felt highly respected and concerned in the programme. There was pressure in CBI classes, especially when the students were asked to lead the discussions. However, it was an enjoyable and valuable experience. The students showed great interest in the results of the CBI programme.
>
> (Excerpted and translated from programme report
> of a content teacher in the CBI team in WLC with permission)

Improved inter-disciplinary cooperation was reported as another achievement of the programme. There was consistent cooperation between the language and the content teachers during the CBI programme in WLC, although they played different roles

during the three stages of the programme. Working as a team provided opportunities for the language and the content teachers to appreciate each other's academic specialty and pedagogical philosophy. Mutual respect was thus established for harmonious and effective cooperation. As commented by one of the law lecturers in the team,

> There was inter- and intra- departmental communication in WLC before the CBI programme. However, everyone kept their teaching method and techniques secret because of the competition for promotion, which related closely to the pay rate. During the CBI programme, the three teachers from the language and the law departments worked as a team. They exchanged teaching experiences and shared the result of classroom observation, assessment and analysis of students' development. Teaching methods and procedures were frequently modified as group decision for effective instruction.

> (Excerpted and translated from programme report of a content
> teacher in the CBI team in WLC with permission)

Feedback from other teaching and administrative departments was also encouraging. The principal of WLC said in a personal on-line conversation that the CBI programme was viewed as a pedagogical reform in WLC. An official report on the CBI programme was composed by the administrative office in WLC and submitted to the Judicial Bureau of Wuhan City.

3.5 Features of the CBI programme in WLC

There are four distinguishing features of the CBI programme in WLC. These features concern language learning, course assessment, speaking opportunities and concept of homework. Some of them differentiate the CBI course in WLC from those in other Chinese colleges; some make CBI in WLC distinguishable from CBI in other countries. It is expected that the CBI programme in WLC provides valuable information for practising the approach in other settings.

3.5.3 Priority of language learning in content-language integration

One of the aims of the CBI programme in WLC was to encourage language learning by integrating information in the content area. The students might not necessarily have adequate opportunities to use the language in real life, but they had to learn the language since it was a compulsory subject. Integrating the students' content subject with language teaching might increase students' opportunities to use the language and therefore make language learning bear practical value. The traditional approach impacted on the language learning process of the EFL learners as well as their interest in CBI as a new approach.

In the CBI programme in WLC, students experienced three stages of language learning: 1)learning the language as an isolated linguistic subject when students pay more attention to the linguistic elements in a legal text; 2) learning the language used in the content area when the unfamiliarity with the language is reduced by their understanding of the legal texts; and 3) learning the language by using it as a means to content mastery when students are able to use language as a tool to receive and retrieve information in the content area.

This process was not linear. In most cases, each stage during the process was likely to be a mixture of the three stages. Even at the initial stage of the programme, for instance, some students tried to memorise the meaning of a legal term, study its use in a legal context and practise it in group discussion. Features in some stages seemed to be stronger than the others due to the different focus of attention. At the final stage, for example, students focused more on the content meaning than on the linguistic structures.

3.5.4 Learning diary as means of teacher-student communication and course evaluation

Students in the programme were required to write learning diaries almost every day as part of their homework. The main components of the diary were the legal information, language knowledge and students' comments on classroom instruction.

The learning diary worked multi-functionally. First of all, it provided opportunities for students to review the content and language knowledge they acquired in the CBI classes. During the process of reporting and commenting, students had to apply cognitive skills such as synthesising, analysing and criticising.

The learning diary also served as a bridge between the teacher and the learner, hence teaching and learning. This written form of communication, as well as e-mails, was welcomed by most programme students. Being relieved of the time limit and pressure of the face-to-face interaction, students could 'talk' with their teachers more comfortably and confidently.

In addition, the learning diary was used as a particular record of each student's improvement. Considering students' variety in their language proficiency and background knowledge, it might not be appropriate to assess their development in CBI classes with a same standard. The improvement should be evaluated against students' individual starting point when they enrolled in the programme. The learning diary provided the opportunity for the students to evaluate their development as individuals.

It is worth mentioning the marking issue of the learning dairy. Since the diary was regarded as means of teacher-learner communication, all of the students' learning diaries were marked with detailed comments in English. Students were required to read the comments very carefully and discuss them with their peers. According to the

end-of-programme questionnaires, this way of marking was regarded as one of the most attractive factors of the CBI course. Some students even said that they would have shown higher motivation for traditional language learning if their homework was marked in this way because the comments made more sense and therefore more helpful compared with scores.

It seemed that higher motivation and attention were generated when the result of marking did not lead to student-student competition, but a form of teacher-student communication. This may be particularly true when competition was not the aim of language instruction.

3.5.5 Student oral presentation as a starting point for authentic talk

Another feature of the CBI programme in WLC was the oral presentation. Students were grouped to discuss content area information they have acquired in CBI classes and a summary was presented in English by the group representatives. Although most students realised that practising was important in learning a language, they were not confident in using the language. In order to increase students' practice opportunities and push them to use the language, oral presentation was the first procedure of the CBI classes from the third week of the programme.

At the early stage, topics of the student oral presentation were chosen freely by students. For example, they could talk about their family, a favourite book, or personal hobbies, etc. The aim of the free choice was to encourage students to 'open their mouths' and speak in English. With the progress of CBI courses, students had grasped some content information and language knowledge. Therefore, content-related topics started to take over. For students at this stage, talking about legal knowledge they were learning concurrently with the language was much easier than reciting abstract texts in traditional language course books about food that they had never eaten, people that the students had never met and incidents that they had

never experienced.

The students' confidence was also built in the process of presentations. As noted in my working diary, they became more confident to speak in English if the information involved was relevant and meaningful. Meanwhile, they were also greatly encouraged and motivated when their peers' presentations ended up with active responses and positive feedbacks.

To a certain degree, oral presentations based on the content-area communication increased the opportunities for students to speak in English. Every presenter set an authentic model of the use of English language to the fellow students, even if some presentations were somehow deficient.

3.5.6 New concept of homework

At the beginning of the CBI programme in WLC, students were normally required to complete sentence translations and write short assignments based on some legal cases (see Appendix VII). This was because of influence of traditional teaching models on the concept of student homework. In the traditional Chinese educational system, it was believed that homework consisted of additional written or oral exercises issued by teachers.

During the process of the CBI programme in WLC, the concept of homework was re-defined by CBI teachers. They found that the homework should not just refer to what the teachers thought the students *should* do but what the students thought they *need* to do after class.

According to the pre-programme questionnaires, over ninety-five percent of students in WLC spent less than one hour per week learning English after their language classes. Eighty-seven percent admitted that they were happy when less homework

was assigned by the teacher. However, too little homework or no homework was voted as the most disappointing part of their traditional language classes. They assumed that little homework indicated that the teachers were not keen to know how much their students had learned.

The idea of re-defining the concept of homework was initiated at the beginning stage of the CBI programme in WLC. According to a general test in a CBI class during the first week, the students, as the centre of learning, seemed to know more about what they needed to do as individuals. As was written in my work diary:

> One day the students were required to read the text five times or more after class However, only 4 students have done it. To the surprise of the CBI teachers, the new words and content knowledge introduced in the class have been well remembered by most of the students. Moreover, in-class discussion and questioning and answering in English are much more promising than the previous days. English conversation and teacher-student interaction have started.
>
> (Excerpted from my CBI programme diary)

It can be seen from the case above, what is learned by the students can be more than what is taught by the teacher when the learners are involved in the learning process actively and individually. Homework should include everything that students need to learn through their own effort after class. In other words, it is the students themselves who decide the content and the amount of their homework.

The new concept of homework was then applied throughout the CBI programme in WLC. Apart from some compulsory exercises including learning diaries, students were encouraged to decide what else they were going to do after each CBI class. Revision of previously learned knowledge, preparation of new lessons and collection of relevant information were all included as homework.

Summary

This chapter reported on a case study of a two-month CBI programme conducted in Wuhan Law College. The aim of the programme was to evaluate the effectiveness of the CBI approach by applying it to the actual context of WLC. Continuous adaptation and modification were made during the programme in order to achieve satisfactory outcomes.

The CBI programme in WLC was divided into three stages, which reflected the process of establishing a WLC-specific CBI model. Teaching procedures, students' development and involvement of content teachers were reported in the description of each stage of the programme.

At the initial stage, the CBI classes followed a traditional procedure of presentation, practice and production. English, as the students' L2, was used as the main medium of instruction. The roles of content and language teachers were clarified and their responsibilities for the CBI classes were fairly shared. The language and the content teachers took advantage of expertise in their respective fields. Based on close co-operation, the language teacher led the English-medium presentation of the content knowledge, which was concluded in L1 by the content teachers at the end of each CBI class.

Students were interested in and enthusiastic about the new approach. They found the English-medium content teaching understandable but stressful. It was hard for them to concentrate on the unfamiliar language throughout the CBI class. The rich content and language input in the first few weeks did not significantly improve students' output. They were still dependent on the traditional grammar-translation approach and lacked confidence in participating in content-related L2 activities.

Group meetings were held before and after each CBI class. Students' reactions to the

course and other teachers' advice were discussed in order to improve the effectiveness of the approach in WLC. At the second stage, the CBI procedures were modified to enhance students' language opportunities and deepen their involvement in the programme. Exams were removed as a form of course assessment. Students' development was to be evaluated from their in-class performance, learner diaries and the homework.

Students were encouraged to give oral presentations at the beginning of each CBI class. They were also encouraged to search for L2 content information before the class. The clear-cut distinction between content and language knowledge diminished since pedagogical emphasis was placed on content area information. Depending on the complexity of the content information, both L1 and L2 were used as medium of instruction by the language teacher as course presenter. With full attendance, content teachers played the role of assistants mainly in students' group discussions. During this stage, the modified procedures reduced teacher talk time. The modification resulted in students' development in two dimensions: academic success including their language and content mastery as CBI learners and critical thinking skills as participants in a CBI research project.

Encouraged by students' development in the second stage, CBI teachers decided to provide more opportunities for student activities. At the final stage of the CBI programme in WLC, a student-centred CBI model was established. The CBI classes were initiated with student oral presentations. These presentations involved content information collected by the students before each CBI class. Group discussions were conducted on the basis of the presentations. Student presenters led the discussion by providing topics for discussion and eliciting feedback from teachers and their fellow learners.

The learner-centred teaching mode encouraged students to engage more actively in CBI classes. It also enhanced the teaching efficiency of the CBI teachers. Rather than

delivering a whole pack of content area knowledge, CBI teachers provided assistance according to students' individual needs and requirements. These needs and requirements were genuine because they were elicited from student group discussion and the information collected by students themselves.

There was no distinction between ESAP and EGAP in the CBI classes at this stage. Nor was there a separation between the language and the content teaching. The language problems were raised and resolved naturally during the process of content learning. Each individual learner was at the centre of his/her content-language integrated study. The teachers, in most cases, acted as learning assistants and classroom controllers. They provided any sort of help needed by the students for their content and language study. They also monitored classroom activities as well as the range of knowledge involved in the CBI classes.

The WLC-specific CBI model was established in relation to students' needs and their reactions to each CBI class. Although teachers were not at the centre of the model, they contributed enormously to the establishment of the CBI model in WLC. The next chapter provides a thematic account of the CBI programme. Data collected in the programme are analysed in the chapter with respect to the six research questions addressed in the project.

Chapter   4 Data Analysis

Introduction

Chapter three explained how a CBI programme was conducted in WLC as a college setting in China. A general narrative account of the students' development and the teachers' role at each stage was also provided in the chapter. It is the focus of this chapter to analyse thematically the data collected before, during and after the programme. The purpose of the analysis is to evaluate the effectiveness of CBI in developing students' language, content and cognitive abilities. As well as the effort invested by the teachers and the students in the CBI classes, administrative support is considered as crucial to a successful CBI programme, although the issue itself was not mentioned in my original research questions. The six research questions will be answered in this chapter and summarized later as part of conclusions of the thesis.

The student is at the centre of the first two sections of this chapter. The first section of this chapter provides answers to research question one about the appropriateness of CBI in WLC as a further education college. The section introduces information about WLC students' needs and analyses the effectiveness of the traditional approaches in the development of the students' four basic language skills and learning strategies. It is argued that the students have learned some linguistic rules for general L2 communicative purposes. However, the WLC students are not motivated to learn and practise these linguistic rules. There seems to be a mismatch between what is introduced in traditional language classes and what is needed by the WLC students in real life.

The second section illustrates the effectiveness of CBI in increasing the students' motivation and practice opportunities in L2 learning. In order to answer research questions two, three and four about the impact of CBI on students' language, content

and cognitive development, this section analyzed the WLC students' development during the CBI programme according to their language abilities, performance in the content classes, as well as their progress in cognitive thinking and strategic learning.

The teacher is the key word for sections three and four. Section three introduces the content teachers' and language teachers' attitude towards the necessity and feasibility of CBI in WLC before the programme. The students' less advanced English language proficiency is the teachers' major concern, which leads to a general argument that 'CBI may not be feasible in WLC as a college setting'.

There is a systematic introduction of many CBI teachers' experiences in section three. Some of these teachers are from the language department and some from content departments of other colleges and universities in China. The content teachers seem more confident due to their expertise in the content area and content-related language abilities. The language teachers, however, place more emphasis on language skills rather than a profound introduction of the content knowledge in their classes. These classes normally involve content information but are not taught through team-teaching.

Following the introduction of WLC teachers' attitudes to CBI and the CBI teachers' pedagogical experience, section four documents the involvement of the content and the language teachers in the CBI programme in WLC. Data and analysis in this section aims to provide answers to research questions five and six, which concern the content and the language teachers' reaction to the programme.

Administrative support is portrayed as important for the success of the CBI programme. Section five discusses some administrative issues in conducting the CBI programme in WLC. The WLC case may provide some suggestions about how to seek administrative support in similar settings in China.

4.1 Students' needs and language learning experience: answers to research question one

This section is relevant to research question one: Is CBI an appropriate methodology for WLC as a further education college and, by extension, for other specialist further education/colleges in China? Data in this section, which are collected through student questionnaire and personal communications, focus on WLC students' language learning experience, content knowledge and cognitive abilities. Data collected through pre-programme questionnaires are analysed in order to see the extent to which the students' skills in language and content learning are developed in traditional language classes. Results of the analysis indicate that CBI, as an integrative approach, is desirable for students at WLC since it meets the students' needs for language learning, academic/professional success and cognitive development.

4.1.1 WLC students' language learning experience

Questionnaires were distributed to 106 students before the programme in order to gather information about the learners' needs and their language learning experience. Findings in this section indicate the limited effectiveness of traditional language classes in developing WLC students' English language proficiency.

4.1.1.1 Three to five years of formal English language learning

As shown in table 4.1, all of the 106 students who responded to the questionnaire received three years general English language education in junior middle school before they entered WLC. Nearly fifty-four per cent of them also learned English for over two years during their five- or six-year primary education. In other words, over half of the programme students had at least five years' English language learning experience.

	Total Student Number	With only 3yrs English language learning experience in Junior middle school	With an additional 2yrs or more English language learning experience in primary school	Confident in inter-personal L2 conversation
Male students	47	25	22	1
Female students	59	24	35	1
Sum	106	49	57	2

Table 4.1 Language background of the programme students and
their self-evaluation of oral proficiency

Forty-six per cent of the students had only three years of English language learning experience. They started to learn the language when they entered junior middle schools at the age of twelve or thirteen. The three years of language education focused on language items for basic interpersonal communications. According to the national curriculum, the students were expected to acquire basic rules for English pronunciation, word formulation and sentence structure. Grammatical items introduced in this period included basic use of personal pronouns (e.g. the singular and plural forms of the first, second and third personal pronouns), tenses (e.g. simple present, simple past and present/past progressive), and moods (e.g. declarative, imperative and interrogative).

Fifty-four per cent of the students had over five years of experience as EFL learners. They started to learn English in the third year of primary education. These students were expected by the national curriculum to have a larger amount of vocabulary, and be familiar with expressions for daily conversation. Most grammar rules were introduced before the students entered into the next level of education. The subjunctive mood was generally the only grammatical item that had not been introduced in this period.

In brief, after three to five years of formal English language education, basic language skills were introduced to the Chinese students. With a reasonable investment of diligence and practice, the students would therefore be expected to manage interpersonal communications in English. However, this may not be true for the students in WLC. That is, the WLC students may not have learned to use what they have been taught in traditional language classes.

4.1.1.2 Language skills and activities introduced in WLC

Traditional language approaches may benefit most Chinese EFL learners as an effective way of introducing linguistic rules. Some diligent Chinese students even outperform other ethnic group including British pupils in pen-and-paper exams (*The Independent*, Feb. 16th, 2007). However, students in WLC, as well as other college students in China, did not seem to benefit from the traditional language classes as much as other junior middle school or university students. According to their junior secondary school record cards provided by the department of teaching affairs in WLC, these students' average English graduation mark was 56, which was four points under the passing grade.

WLC students might have not worked hard enough to improve their language proficiency. As shown in table 4.4 (see page 222), for example, most programme students spent less than an hour per week on learning English after class. However, it might not be reasonable to accuse them of being lazy. According to the pre-programme questionnaire, 101 students out of 106 expressed their frustration by the low marks of their English exams (see question 10 of the questionnaire). They also expressed their need for motivation, practice opportunities and strategies in language learning, which are analysed in the following sections.

a)   Speaking

Most of the students, i.e. 104 out of 106 programme students in this case, showed hardly any confidence in their language abilities after years of English language learning. Although two students claimed that they were confident to conduct basic interpersonal communications in English, none of the programme students participated in English conversation outside of their language classes.

Practice opportunities seemed to be one of the biggest issues for the WLC students to practise their English speaking skills. They learned to speak in English only in language classes. With text books as the main course material, the topics for classroom conversation were normally text-based. Instead of communicating for authentic purposes, the students conducted oral sentence level drills with the lexical and grammatical items introduced by the language teacher.

The students' mother tongue is used for any kind of conversations even in language classes. Speaking in English seemed neither necessary nor normal in real life. As a result, the WLC student lacked opportunities to practise the language and to evaluate their language abilities through various types of communications.

b)   Reading

Reading aloud and silent reading were the main two types of activities in order to develop WLC students' reading skills. The former aimed to help the students memorise English pronunciations and sentence structures, whereas the latter focused more on strategies required by understanding the L2 texts.

For most WLC students, reading activities mainly involved verbally repeating vocabulary and texts guided by the teacher or other audio resources such as tapes or disks. The main purpose was to improve phonetic performance rather than search

for information. Reading materials were normally short texts in the English course books. The students did not seek other English materials, although many of them also read the texts outside of language classes.

Reading skills including skimming and scanning were introduced by language teachers. Due to the limit supply of L2 texts in the language classes, the students hardly had any opportunities to practise these skills. Moreover, none of the L2 texts applied in language classes were related to law as the students' major subject.

According to the pre-programme questionnaire (see question 30 of Appendix III), ninety-six per cent of the students chose dictionaries, course books and grammar books as their favourite tools in English language learning. As explained by many students during the informal follow-up conversations, it took more time to memorise reading skills taught by the teacher than looking up the new words in dictionaries.

In sum, reading was regarded by WLC students as an opportunity to develop their vocabulary and memorise grammatical rules. Apart from answering questions after the texts, the students did not feel a particular need to find information when reading English texts, although some of the information might be interesting.

c)   Writing

According to my own teaching experience and as confirmed with language teachers from WLC and many other colleges, writing was the main form of students' homework in language classes. The writing exercises involved non-creative drills such as sentence making and translation. Instead of expressing authentic feelings, the purpose of this kind of writing was to help the students memorise vocabulary and sentence structures. The teachers marked students' writing and corrected linguistic mistakes.

According to informal conversations with language teachers in WLC and my personal experience as a language teacher, marks of the student homework were used along with exams to evaluate the students' development. The written homework was normally completed after class. Since most of these exercises required standard answers, the students might have the opportunity to copy others' answers without the teachers' supervision. Very few students failed the homework and the teachers' marks and correction were rarely taken seriously by the students.

d)   Listening

Compared with the other three language skills, less time and energy was spent on teaching listening skills. Listening was referred to as comprehension exercises based on text-related audio or audio-visual materials. The students were required to pay attention to the key words and the contexts of the conversation in the listening materials.

According to my teaching experience and conversations with language teachers in and outside WLC, most students found the listening lessons enjoyable since they felt more in control: they could ask the teacher to replay the tapes or disks when they thought the material was difficult. They could also record the materials and listen to them whenever they were ready.

Table 4.2 provides an outline of the four basic language skills introduced and practised in WLC before the CBI programme.

L2 Skills	purposes	activities
Speaking	• Practise lexical and grammatical items	Oral sentence-level drills
Reading	• Improve phonetic performance • Memorize lexical items and structural rules	Verbally repeat what was read by the teacher and audio resources
	• Comprehend L2 texts	Reading skills were introduced by the teacher but rarely applied by students
Writing	• Memorize lexical items, grammatical rules and sentence structures	Sentence-level writing exercises
Listening	• Comprehend L2 audio or audio-visual materials	Text-based listening exercises

Table 4.2 Language skills introduced in WLC before the CBI programme

4.1.1.3   Students' interest and motivation in language learning

As seen from table 4.2, the practice of the four basic language skills in WLC was focused on sentence level with little relevance to the students' real world life or subject studies. When curiosity in English as a foreign language faded away, the students found that language classes 'were not as interesting and helpful as they should be' (from personal communication with the programme students). For most of them, interest in learning English decreased since they started studying in WLC. As shown in table 4.3 (on page 221), over half of the students admitted in their questionnaire responses that they were not as interested as they were when they first began learning English.

Time	Level of interest in EFL	Student number	Percentage
Year 0-1	Interested	104	98.1%
	Not interested	2	1.9%
Years 3-5	Decreased	57	53.8 %
	Increased	31	29.2 %
	Unchanged	18 (including the two who were not interested in the language from the beginning)	17.0 %

Table 4.3 Change of students' interest in English language learning

The change of interest in language learning may be closely linked to a decrease of intrinsic motivation (see Deci and Ryan, 1985). In the beginning, most students possessed high curiosity and enthusiasm in English as a foreign language, although it was introduced as a compulsory course. As revealed by the pre-programme questionnaire (see question 3 of the questionnaire in Appendix III) and shown in table 4.3, 104 out of 106 students insisted that they were interested in English when they started learning the language. However, the curiosity did not last long. And the enthusiasm started to drop since the role of this international language was not fully relevant to the students' daily life. In this sense, English language was learned only as a subject course.

The low intrinsic motivation resulted in students' devoting less time to language learning. As revealed in table 4.4 (on page 222), no more than an hour per week was spent on learning English by most of the students. As a matter of fact, most students spent this amount of time to finish class work as their homework (from interviews with the programme students).

Time spent per week	Less than 1 hour	1 to 5 hours	5 to 10 hours	Over 10 hours
Student number	100	3	1	2
Percentage	94.4%	2.8%	0.9%	1.9%

Table 4.4   Time spent on language learning by WLC students after class

So far it seemed that the limited language proficiency of WLC students should be related to the insufficient investment of time and interest. Hard work was regarded as the only path to language acquisition. Phrases like 'I should have worked harder'; 'I did not work hard enough' were the most frequently used by the students when they answered question 32 of the pre-programme questionnaire. To them, the process of English language learning was hardly joyful; although they were aware that learning is not always fun.

However, there remained a high extrinsic motivation (also see Deci and Ryan, 1985) among the students as EFL learners. On one hand, learning English was a requirement in most education settings in China, from primary schools to universities. The students felt that they had to learn the language because it was a compulsory and credit-bearing subject. As indicated by interviews and personal communications with language teachers before the programme, good students were more willing to learn English since their effort was rewarded immediately with high marks and positive teacher feedback. Students who would not normally get good marks were pushed to learn the language so as to pass the exams. They might not have learned English willingly, and language learning was viewed as an unpleasant but unavoidable process.

The students maintained levels of anxiety in English language learning. According to their answers to question 8 of the pre-programme questionnaire (see Appendix IV), all the 106 students wished to acquire a high level of language proficiency. As

shown in table 4.5, there was a common understanding of the significance of English as lingua franca. Many WLC students felt that a good level of English language proficiency was important for their future careers, while some hoped to be able to use the language fluently in interpersonal communications.

	Learn English as an important lingua franca	Would learn English even it was non-credit-bearing	Learn English for daily communication	Learn English for future profession
Student number	106	106	43	63
Percentage	100%	100%	40.6%	59.4%

Table 4.5 Students' motivation and purposes for language learning

It seems that the students needed and wanted to learn English. However, what they were taught may not be what they wished to learn, and the way they were taught may not be the way through which they wished to learn either.

4.1.2 Professional and academic needs

As mentioned above, there was a common understanding of English as a tool of international communication. The students were also well aware that a good level of English language proficiency might increase their employment opportunities in the future. However, the link between English language study and its practical contribution to the students' present studies and future career remained vague to both the students and the teachers. It is the purpose of this section to analyse the relationship between English language learning and students' academic and professional needs. The analysis is based on data collected through student questionnaires, teacher questionnaires, interviews and personal communications.

4.1.2.1 Professional needs

In WLC, all the subject courses, apart from English, were introduced in Chinese.
Students could get basic if not sufficient content knowledge through the L1.
Moreover, it was unlikely for most of the students in WLC to study or work abroad.
However, according to the pre-programme questionnaires, English was rated
important or very important by most of the law teachers in WLC (see table 4.6 on
page 226). The importance of English was based on the following facts provided
through lecturer interviews.

a) As future law practitioners, the students in WLC must pass the national
    examinations for the legal profession. The proportion of marks awarded for
    the English language test increases every year in the exam.

b) English language proficiency is important for students of international law.
    With globalization, more international cases will concern domestic affairs.

c) Students with high English language proficiency are always preferred by
    employers.

In terms of the four language skills, reading was considered as most desirable for
the legal profession by the law teachers. According to their experience as part-time
legal practitioners, the heads of the law departments in WLC argued that success in
most legal professions was closely related to accurate comprehension and
interpretation of the written materials. These materials such as regulations,
documents, contracts and reports were used as basis and evidence of legal activities.
A good level of knowledge in both law and English was a prerequisite in
interpreting legal materials written in English.

Reading skills might be understood by the content teachers as abilities in general

comprehension of articles and legal literature. Considering the students as EFL learners, however, the teachers should not overlook the importance of language knowledge and reading skills required by L2 reading.

Writing was also regarded as prominent by the heads of the two law departments. It was seen as an ability that developed with reading practice. As commented by a content teacher in personal conversation,

> In composing a legal document in L2, the meaning of each word is far more important than the form of the whole article. ... ... an accurate word selection depends heavily on rich legal vocabulary, which can only be achieved through reading a large amount of legal literature.
>
> (Transcribed and translated from the conversation)

It is true that an accurate lexical selection may contribute considerably to precise meaning transfer. However, neither L1 nor L2 users should underestimate the importance of other language and content abilities demanded by good writing. These abilities include, on the one hand, awareness of genre, appropriate use of discourse markers, correct selection of lexical items for cohesion and coherence, etc. and profound knowledge and information about content areas on the other.

Compared with reading and writing, L2 listening and speaking skills were less frequently used by legal practitioners. As explained by the heads of the two law departments, professional interpreters were employed in most international legal activities. However, the lecturers believed that law students should take opportunities to develop their listening and speaking abilities. Practice in L2 listening and speaking helps to improve the students' L2 proficiency. Although the students may not need to speak in English and listen to the English legal statement, they do need to possess general skills to explain their viewpoints clearly and perceive other people's ideas accurately.

Table 4.6 is based on the interviews with the heads of the two law departments in WLC. It is approved by the interviewees and other law teachers in WLC. The table summarises the content teachers' views about the importance of the four language skills for WLC students as the future legal profession.

Skill	*Importance*	*Practical use*
Speaking	Not very important	Not frequently used by domestic law practitioners
Reading	Very important	Accurate comprehension and interpretation of the L2 legal materials
Listening	Not very important	Not frequently used by domestic law practitioners
Writing	Important	Accurately Composing L2 legal documents

Table 4.6 Content teachers' views about the importance of the four language skills

4.1.2.2   Academic needs

While the teachers viewed students' needs from the perspective of their future profession, the students worried more about their present studies. A reasonable integration of language skills and legal information was welcomed by WLC students.

As indicated in the pre-programme questionnaires, 96 per cent of the students (i.e. 102 out of 106) would be more deeply and actively engaged in language classes if some legal knowledge and information were introduced (See question 18 of the questionnaire). According to the follow-up interviews and conversations, many students said that they would feel less embarrassed by content mistakes in language classes.

Although most (100 out of 106) students regarded it as essential for their language teachers to possess some basic legal knowledge (See question 20 of the pre-programme questionnaire in Appendix IV). Only few (2 out of 106) would be disappointed if the language teacher did not possess as much legal knowledge as the students (See question 21 of the pre-programme questionnaire). It seemed that what the students needed was the language teacher's awareness of law as their content subject while keeping a high level of English language proficiency. As revealed by their responses to question 22 of the pre-programme questionnaire, 100 per cent of the students preferred a language teacher with proficient language knowledge and basic legal knowledge to the one with very good legal knowledge and basic language proficiency.

In WLC as an educational setting, the content teachers viewed English language as a set of skills that would enhance students' employment opportunities, whereas students wanted content information to enrich their language classes.

4.1.3 Students' needs for cognitive skills and language learning strategies

Language learning strategies seemed to be most needed by WLC students. According to the pre-programme questionnaire (See question 30 of the questionnaire) and as shown in table 4.7, using reference books and asking peers and teachers were the only strategies applied by WLC students.

Strategy	Rate of application
Asking good students	1.2%
Asking peers sitting nearby	1.1%
Asking teachers	1.7%
Using reference books, e.g. dictionaries, course books, grammar books, etc.	96%
Using other strategies	0
Giving up	0

Table 4.7 Learning strategies used by WLC students

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As explained later by many students through informal interviews and communications, they wished to learn more strategies and apply them to language learning. However, they hardly remembered any strategies that were introduced by teachers.

4.1.3.1   Lack of clear conception of learning strategies

Learning strategies were needed by the students but often ignored in the actual learning situation by both the students and the teachers. As complained by a student representative in the first CBI group meeting,

> We know that learning strategies are very important in English study. We need them to learn English better and faster. The teachers also advise us to pay more attention to learning strategies. However, we don't know what they really are. We ask our teachers and fellow students, and even buy books on learning strategies. But we still do what we normally did in our English study. All that is in our mind is to get the job done.
>
> (Transcribed and translated from the first CBI group meeting)

It seemed that the students realised the importance of strategies in their English language learning. However, most of them lacked a clear interpretation of learning strategies. For these students, learning strategies were similar to knowledge in academic areas, which were introduced by the teachers but rarely questioned by the students. Once some strategies were introduced explicitly in the class, students believed that all they needed to do was apply these strategies without justification or accommodation, if opportunities were provided.

4.1.3.2   Inadequate opportunities to practise learning strategies

With knowledge delivery as the centre of teaching, it was normally impossible for

the teacher to check where, when and how the strategies were to be used by each individual student. The students, on the other hand, tended to blame themselves for misunderstanding or misusing the strategies. For example, the teachers would introduce skimming and scanning as strategies in L2 reading. Followed by the instruction, some articles might be distributed for the students to read. The students would then use these strategies to comprehend the articles. The aim of the reading, however, was to complete the related exercises rather than evaluate the effectiveness of these strategies. As seen from the transcription above, the students consider these strategies as effective since they were written in the teacher's book and introduced by the teacher. If the students failed to understand the articles correctly, they would attribute the failure to their misuse of the strategies or inadequate language and content abilities as opposed to the lack of in-depth understanding of the strategies as well as rich practice opportunities.

4.1.3.3 Influence of traditional approaches on language learning

As indicated by student questionnaires and the follow-up communications with them, learning strategies were not often introduced or emphasised by the teachers. Nor were the students provided with much opportunity to practise the strategies. Concerning English language learning, the students were dependent on the teachers and traditional approaches. They therefore viewed the study of English as an accumulation of vocabulary and grammatical items.

The students' understandings about English language learning were influenced by their role in traditional language classes. As seen from the data collected in the pre-programme questionnaires (see table 4.8 based on students' responses to question 29 of the questionnaire), a good amount of vocabulary was regarded as very important by most of the students, whereas exposure to authentic use was seen as the least important.

	Very important	Important	Not very important	Unimportant
Vocabulary accumulation	52%	48%	0%	0%
Grammar learning	48%	52%	0%	0%
Frequent practice	0%	0%	56%	44%
Exposure to authentic use	0%	0%	44%	56%

Table 4.8 Students' view on the four factors in EFL learning

As knowledge receivers in traditional language classes in WLC, the students used text books with new words listed after each unit. Grammatical items were introduced to explain the word formulations and sentence structures. Vocabulary and grammatical knowledge were practised by exercises such as word grouping, sentence making and translation. With the teachers as the centre of the language classes, language learning was a temporary activity in academic settings. Although most students thought they may need to learn the language even after graduation, they would feel lost without the teacher's in-class guidance. A student expressed his concern when answering question 32 of the pre-programme questionnaire:

> I don't think English has received enough emphasis in WLC. I was disappointed to find that English lessons were cut down after my first year of study. I like English very much. I am worried my language abilities will drop quickly without a teacher's guidance. I think I will attend some language courses provided by other agencies.
>
> (My translation from the student's questionnaire)

4.1.3.4 Students' need for cognitive skills

It is indicated by teacher interviews and communications that the content and the

language teachers seemed to have different views on the significance of cognitive skills in developing the students' content and language abilities. However, they all agreed that cognitive skills including information formulation, interpretation, analysis, synthesising and evaluation, etc. were important for the students' general development.

a)   Importance of cognitive skills viewed by the content and the language teachers

Cognitive skills were considered as important to the students' content study by the content teachers. As commented on by the two law lecturers in the CBI group meeting, students, whatever subject they are learning, were required to possess a good level of interpreting and synthesising skills in content classes. These skills, along with analysing, reasoning, summarising, and so on are significant in their future career in the legal field.

Cognitive skills were rarely introduced or emphasised in language class. These skills were considered unnecessary by some language teachers. As was often said by a language teacher to the colleagues in her office,

> I always say to my students that it is fine if you do not understand it (e.g. a grammar item); you do not have to anyway. It is a foreign language, and all you have to do is just learn, I mean, remember how the foreigners use their own language. We do not ask why we speak Chinese in this way rather than that way, don't we? It is language!
>
> (My transcription and translation)

What that language teacher said seemed to have met with the approval of her colleagues.

Ignoring the cognitive skills might also be viewed as a cognitive skill. Linguistic rules might help the learners to understand or memorise the language structure.

However, the learners might not be able to use the language unless the non-linguistic factors including the content and the context are taken into account. The language teacher's viewpoint might be better expressed by Widdowson 1983: 103), who argued that problems confronted by the language learners might be more effectively solved by extra-linguistic thinking style.

b)   The learners' use of cognitive skills

Since the students regarded themselves as learners, or knowledge receivers, they rarely questioned what was introduced in the books or by the teachers. The in-class discussion normally showed how the students interpreted knowledge rather than commenting on it. The students' inactive engagement in applying cognitive skills concerned the teachers. A content teacher in WLC said before the CBI programme,

> I always encourage my students to ask questions, and always leave up to ten minutes as students' question time in class. However, it is often a time of silence. Instead of answering questions, I then ask students questions. However, I do not always get response, especially from the poor students.
>
> (My transcription and translation)

According to the content teachers in WLC, some good students with confidence in their content knowledge background were more active in using cognitive skills. They could question, analyse or sometimes comment on newly learned knowledge by referring to previously learned knowledge. Since they were good students, their questions or opinions were not normally considered unintelligent or irrelevant. The content teachers considered that the less advanced students, on the other hand, often struggled receiving knowledge and questioning their own intelligence or effort when they encountered problems in content or language learning. These students were also concerned about the value of their personal opinions.

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During personal communication with me, some students admitted that they often asked the teacher to re-introduce or explain the language items. They also asked how to use those items, but they seldom asked why those items should be used. It seemed that the language teachers' ignoring of cognitive skills had considerable influence on the students.

c)   Revisiting cognitive skills

Cognitive skills may not necessarily be performed formally since they refer to a series of mental and intellectual abilities. That is, the students do not have to ask questions in class, or analyse and comment in written or spoken forms. These actions may stay at an unspoken or unobservable level. In order to supervise students' cognitive development, the teachers should also encourage the students to practise cognitive skills both overtly and covertly.

4.2   Students' development during the CBI programme in WLC: answers to research questions two, three and four

The students' reactions and progress at each stage of the CBI programme in WLC were introduced in chapter three along with the description of the programme implementation. It is the aim of this section to analyse in more depth the impact of CBI on the WLC students' language, content and cognitive development. In other words, the analysis is relevant to research questions two, three and four. Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 provide answers to research question two: How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' EFL proficiency? Section 4.2.3 helps to answer research question three: How does CBI contribute to WLC students' content mastery? Data analysis in section 4.2.4 focuses on research question four: How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' cognitive skills? Data presented in this section are based on student diaries, student questionnaires, the CBI teacher's observation of students' performance in CBI classes, the theme of which was recorded in my work diaries,

and programme report composes by content lecturers as members of the CBI team.

4.2.1 Increased motivation in language learning

The CBI programme seems to have contributed to students' language improvement in the four basic skills, which is discussed in the next section. Closely related to the students' language development, the students' motivation in language learning increased during the programme.

4.2.1.1 Increased motivation

As revealed in the students' end-of-programme questionnaire (see Appendix XIII), language activities on content topics and content-related course materials were the most attractive factors in the programme. The students seemed better motivated and more interested in language learning. The feeling was expressed by a student in her end-of-programme report:

> I found that familiar feeling again, familiar and strange. It was just like when I started
>
> learning English five years ago. I was eager to speak in the class, although sometimes I just
>
> could not find the appropriate words. I was happy when I was doing my homework. When I
>
> finished the homework, I would spend some time revisiting the texts and vocabulary I had
>
> learned earlier in the day.
>
> (My translation from the original version in Chinese)

According to the statement, there seemed to be an enhancement of the students' intrinsic motivation. They enjoyed the CBI classes and were willing to participate in the language-related activities. In other words, they were not forced to learn the language although the CBI courses were non-credit-bearing. Compared with their feelings of 'I am required to learn' and 'I want to learn' in responses to the pre-programme questionnaire, students expressed a different feeling by saying 'I like

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learning' in the end-of-programme questionnaire.

The students' extrinsic motivation remained high during the programme. First, the students felt special and excited with the concurrent attendance of the language and the content teachers in the CBI classes. Secondly, the three devoted CBI teachers and their effort for each CBI class also had significant impact on the students' enthusiastic participation. Last but not least, the integration of subject matter information made the programme meaningful because language skills introduced in the programme were closely related to students' content background, while some new and relevant content area information was introduced and old content knowledge was reinforced in the programme.

4.2.1.2　High rate of course attendance and more time investment

Although the student number dropped from 106 to 36 after the first week of the CBI programme, these 36 students continued to attend the CBI classes and were considered by the CBI team as programme students. Data presented in table 4.9 about credit-bearing courses is provided by the department of teaching affairs of WLC. The CBI classes in WLC were non credit-bearing. However, as shown in table 4.9 (on page 236), 83.7 per cent of the programme students achieved a full attendance, the occasional absence being due to unavoidable reasons such as illness or family emergencies. The figure was nearly ten percent higher than the average attendance in credit- bearing courses. However, this could be related to the length of the course: It was easier to maintain a full or nearly full attendance for two months than for four to five months.

Credit-bearing courses	74.2%
CBI classes	83.7%

Table 4.9 Percentage of students with full attendance

in CBI classes and credit-bearing courses

Closely related to the high attendance rate, the students in the CBI programme spent much more after-class time on content-integrated English language learning. Before the programme, according to the 36 students' response to the pre-and end-of programme questionnaires, they spent on average less than an hour a week on learning English, that is, a maximum of twelve minutes a day. During the CBI programme, they spent at least 45 minutes a day on language learning. The increase rate was 267 per cent.

Period	Time per day	Time per week	Rate of increase
Before CBI	12 min (max.)	60 min (max.)	267%
During CBI	45 min (min.)	225 min (min.)	

Table 4.10 Time devoted to language learning more than tripled during CBI

As shown in table 4.10, the students' English learning time more than tripled by the integrative approach. In fact, there might be a bigger difference between the time that students spent before and during the CBI programme. The former data collected from the pre-programme questionnaire was based on students' self-beliefs. Most of the students admitted afterwards that they over-estimated the amount of time that was spent on learning English. The latter data in the table was only the amount of time that students spent on their homework. The time that students invested in other activities including information preparation for oral presentation and the follow-up group discussion was not taken into account due to the high variety. Therefore it is

reasonable to say that the time for language learning was greatly increased during the CBI programme. Again, the length of the course may be a factor. It is easier to work hard and maintain motivated for a shorter time on a more intensive course.

4.2.2 Language development in the four basic language skills

With more time investment in CBI classes, students believed they made progress in their language skills. According to the end-of-programme questionnaire, all the programme students reported improvements in content-related language skills, while development in general-purpose language skills was reported by nearly two thirds of the student participants (see table 4.11). Data presented in this section are mainly based on student questionnaires, learning diaries and teachers' classroom observations. Analysis in this section helps to answer research question two about the effectiveness of CBI in developing students' language abilities.

	Increased	Decreased	Unsure
EFL skills for general communication	65.2%	0 %	34.8%
Law-related EFL skills	100%	0 %	0 %

Table 4.11 Effectiveness of CBI on WLC students' language development

It seemed that the content-based approach was particularly effective in developing content-related language skills.

4.2.2.1 Development in reading

Reading in a second or foreign language can be used to develop the students' reading skills and language skills (Blue, 1992). Language skills include the learners'

familiarity with lexical items, sentence structure, discourse markers, and cohesive and stylistic devices used in the reading materials. Reading skills refer to basic strategies such as scanning and skimming for information searching and processing, and advanced strategies in summarising, synthesising and criticising.

The CBI programme students experienced three developmental stages in L2 reading, respectively intensive reading, discourse-oriented reading and content-oriented reading (see table 4.12).

Intensive reading

↓

Discourse-oriented reading

↓

Content-oriented reading
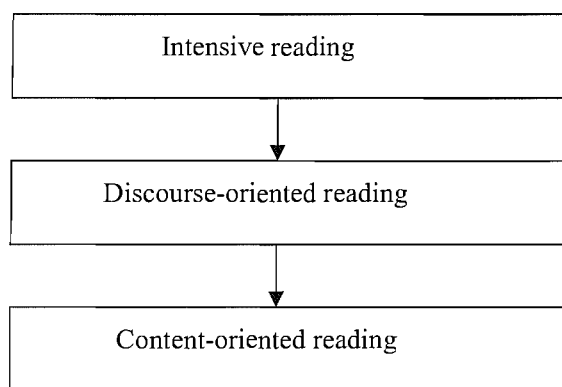
Table 4.12 CBI students' development in reading skills

At the stage of intensive reading, the students focused on the pronunciation, construction and meaning of the content vocabulary. An effort was made to develop standard or nearly standard pronunciation. Imitating the language teacher's pronunciation and resorting to dictionaries for phonetic transcription and L1 translation of each lexical item were the main strategies used in this stage. By no means unproductive, the students achieved a good amount of legal vocabulary. Moreover, they practised the use of the new content words in homework and learners' diaries.

Having accumulated a certain amount of content vocabulary, the students started to pay attention to sentence structure, discourse markers and cohesive devices in

content reading materials. Acquisition of these reading skills depended heavily on the guidance of the language teacher, and the students were encouraged to use a variety of discourse markers in their follow-up writing. This can be seen in a student's sample diary 2 (figure 3.2 on page 191).

With the progress of the CBI programme, classroom procedures such as student oral presentations and discussion on content topics demanded a broader base of content information. Being encouraged by the language and reading skills acquired in the first and second stages, the students accessed journals and internet websites for content information. At this stage, the students aimed their reading at content information embedded in the materials.

Reading speed was not tackled during the programme since there was no rigid time limit for the students to do their reading after class. The students tended to select short articles instead of lengthy literature. This made the assessment of other reading skills including scanning and skimming impractical. However, there was anecdotal evidence that these skills were reasonably well acquired by some students. A student wrote in the end-of-programme questionnaire:

> I always read aloud each new word I came across in the programme. I also highlighted sentences that I thought useful. I spent less time in reading because I could know the main idea of a paragraph by working on the key sentences.
>
> (My translation from the original version in Chinese)

4.2.2.2 Development in writing

Writing was used to assess students' development in language and content knowledge during the CBI programme. Viewed as a language skill, the students' writing developed along with the improvement in reading L2 content materials. According to many programme students, teacher-guided reading helped them

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appreciate the importance of writing skills whereas writing tasks including learning dairies provided them opportunities to practise and develop these skills.

At the initial stage of the programme, the students produced diaries and reports with limited length (e.g. 102 words in figure 3.1). Very few diaries had a word number of over 100. There was a great increase in word length during the programme (e.g. 212 words in figure 3.2). Most students' diaries consisted of over 100 words. The development of the students' legal vocabulary was the major factor that encouraged the students to write at more length (see table 4.14). The length of students' written product became stable at the later stage (see figure 3.3 for example). This was mainly because the students needed to spend some time practising other language skills.

The development of the use of content-related lexical items was noticeable during the programme. The students experienced a process of using the lexical items that they were familiar with, practising the newly learned items from the content texts, and finally using any items, either familiar or new, to meet the need of expressing the content meaning of the written output (see tables 4.13 and 4.14).

Writing is restricted to familiar language and lexical items only

↓

Writing is an opportunity to practice newly learned language items

↓

Writing is aimed to express content meaning
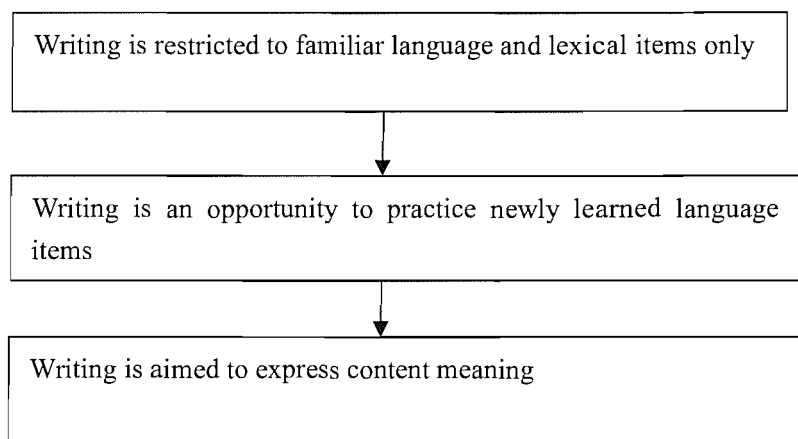
Table 4.13 Progress of the students' view about L2 writing

At the beginning, most of the programme students were over cautious about using

content vocabulary. They stuck to simple words to reduce potential linguistic and content mistakes. Being encouraged by the language teacher and by their development in other language skills, the students started to use new words acquired in the CBI classes. During the last few weeks, some students even tried to use lexical items they picked up in supplementary materials. The increased use of new lexical items, however, did not affect the comprehensibility and accuracy of their writing.

There was also some development in students' academic writing skills. At the very beginning of the programme, some students' writing bore little or no resemblance to academic writing. Both cohesion and coherence were lacking in their writing. In spite of the remarkable effort students invested in these content-based compositions, the writing seemed rather a poorly-presented expression of random thoughts. Apart from an abrupt opening, the theme of the writing was unclear, and the ending was missing (see figure 3.1 for example). Progress was seen when a clear structure was presented in the students' writing. An introduction, main body and a conclusion were recognized as three major parts for academic writing (see figure 3.2 for example). The academic-like writing style was further developed in the later stage of the programme (see figure 3.2 for example). More discourse markers appeared in the students' writing. A variety of lexical items were used to reduce risk of repetition. Topic sentences and supporting sentences were found in most of the paragraphs. In brief, the students' writing was becoming academic-like. Table 4.14 offers an overview of the students' development in L2 writing.

	Stage one	Stage two	Stage three
Length of the writing	● Short (e.g. 102 words in figure 3.1)	● Increased considerably (e.g. 212 in figure 3.2)	● Stabilized (e.g. 205 in figure 3.3)
Lexical items	● Scarce use of new vocabulary (see in figure 3.1)	● Increased use of new vocabulary (e.g. the students try to extend the variety of words and sentence structures by applying new words in the content text to the diaries. See figure 3.2)	● Creative use of new vocabulary (e.g. new words that the students have learned from other resources are used in the students' learning diaries and oral presentations. See figure 3.3)
Discourse skills	● Poor structure ● Lack cohesion and coherence	● Clear structure of introduction, main body and summary ● Increase in cohesion and coherence between paragraphs	● Maintained clear structure ● Variety in lexical items and discourse markers ● Increased cohesion and coherence within paragraphs

Table 4.14 Students' development in L2 writing

4.2.2.3   Development in speaking

As revealed by the three CBI teachers' observation of students' performance in classes, the theme of which was recorded in my work diaries, content and confidence were the main factors in students' speaking skills development in the programme. Student oral presentation and discussion were used in the CBI classes to develop students' skills in L2 speaking. The increasing confidence in L2 speaking was reflected by the students' increasing independence from the script during the presentation as well as their role in group discussion. There was also a shift in the content of the oral presentation. This shift indicated the students' growing interest in the content subject and related language use.

a)   Increased confidence in L2 presentation

During this programme, the students' confidence in L2 speaking grew through reading, talking and communicating. At the reading stage, the students repeated what was written as a script before the oral presentation. At the speaking stage, they tried to orally present the content without frequent reference to the script. At the final stage, the students took the presentation and the follow-up discussion as an opportunity to elicit, exchange and discuss content-area information. This developmental process was not applicable to all the programme students: nearly twenty-five per cent of the students progressed slowly and eighteen per cent did not reach the third stage at the end of the programme.

At the beginning of the programme, very few students offered to give presentations. Those who made the effort to present orally did so because they took the oral presentations as a task rather than an opportunity. They were generally more confident in English than most other students. Completing the task of the oral presentation was regarded as a favour to the teacher and their fellow students. Being encouraged by positive feedback from the CBI teachers and their own progress in the presentation, these students became more active and comfortable. They therefore received more practice opportunities than the others.

In order to balance the opportunities of speaking, the CBI teachers then had to force the rest of the programme students to take turns in oral presentations. It was understandable that these students encountered various difficulties when they gave their first presentations. They had to write each word they were going to use for the presentation including general greetings and their own names. Those who had very limited confidence in their language abilities even asked other students to make a draft for the presentation. The oral presentation itself, in most cases at this stage, was simply word-for-word reading of the scripts. The CBI teachers might be the only members of the audience maintaining consistent eye contact with the presenters.

With teachers' encouragement and increased opportunity for practice, the students felt more relaxed during the presentations. They became comfortable when facing their peers. Drafts were used as a reminder during the presentations, but the students no longer read from a script.

In the later stages of the programme, the student presenters were also the leaders for follow-up discussions. The added responsibility required the students to spend more time on collecting necessary materials and information for their presentations. With adequate preparation, the students became more confident. They started to be independent of the scripts. Moreover, interaction including eye contact with peer students also helped to focus the presenters' attention on the content of the presentation. As the leader of the follow-up discussion the student presenters built content-driven communication with their peers. They discussed and exchanged content area information based on materials collected by the students themselves. However, English was not always used as the main medium of the group discussion.

b)   Shift of the content topics involved in the presentation

As reported in the previous chapter, there was a shift of the content in student oral presentations. At the beginning of the programme, the oral presentations were on topics that were not related to their studies. In fact, the topic selection was not random. The students had to choose the topics carefully without involving too many new words and complicated phrases.

With the deeper involvement in the programme and broader exposure to content-related language materials, an increasing number of students found content-based presentation more practical. Material selection became purposeful, and the texts in the course book provided central lexical items to facilitate mutual understanding between the presenters and student audiences.

Most students valued as important the follow-up L2 group discussion after the presentation because it provided opportunities to practise the language. It also broadened the students' access to content information. However, some students insisted that L1 discussion was more effective. As argued by one of the programme students in the questionnaires, 'Using Chinese may enhance the quality of group discussion. Moreover, it will make me feel more comfortable because we are all Chinese anyway'. (Translation mine)

Although L1 was still used by many students in group discussion at the end of the CBI programme, there were an increasing number of students who tended to use English in CBI classes. There was also development in the students' confidence and competence in content-area L2 communication during the process. It was reasonable to expect that a long-term CBI programme might encourage more students to use the language with enhanced fluency and accuracy due to the increased practice opportunities.

4.2.2.4   Development in listening

Based on the CBI teachers' classroom observations and my work diaries, there was limited development in students' L2 listening abilities compared with their development in other language skills. With emphasis on lexical items in content area, the students concentrated better when the relevant content knowledge was the centre of classroom communication and instruction. English language used for interpersonal communication for other purposes including class organization was not more difficult than the content-area language. However, it was impractical for the students to focus all the time on the L2 expressions in CBI classes. They therefore decided to pay more attention to the L2 transmission of content knowledge. In this sense, the CBI classes were conceived by the students as ESAP- or ESOP-oriented.

The L2 interpersonal communication was regarded as difficult and unnecessary by many students in CBI classes. Students expressed their concerns through the end-of-programme questionnaires. As some of them suggested, it was not necessary to use English when the students discussed their personal opinions in groups. One student suggested that the teacher should ask two students to summarize the result of group discussions. One of them should speak in English and the other in Chinese, so that all the students could understand the result of the discussion. The students' heavy workload due to the unfamiliarity with the language and sometimes with the content was understood by the teachers.

Some pedagogical modifications were made to ease the students' anxieties. For example, time was spent on teaching the language through the traditional approach (see table 3.4), and L1 was used to explain some content information (see table 4.6). However, the CBI teachers unanimously agreed that the students should be pushed to practise the language skills by consistently using them. Since English language is scarcely used outside of the CBI classrooms, the students were advised to make the most of the in-class opportunities to speak in L2 during the programme. This also provided their peers with opportunities to develop L2 listening skills.

Although listening skills might not have been as important as reading for the students at WLC, seeking pedagogical strategies for the students' development in L2 listening is certainly worth the effort. The experience of the CBI teachers in other colleges and universities also indicated that practice time was the central issue in students' language development. The learners would not obtain enough confidence if they lacked any of the four basic skills in their English language proficiency.

4.2.3   CBI students' performance in content classes

The CBI programme enhanced students' interest in studying law as their content subject. According to the end-of-programme questionnaires, over eighty per cent of

the programme students said that they were more interested in law classes. Some students even claimed explicitly in their programme reports that in spite of the aim of learning both English and law, they gained more legal knowledge than English language skills.

Instead of repeating the law knowledge delivered in content classes, the CBI programme in WLC aimed to broaden students' access to content information. The focus of CBI classes was on background information and conceptual knowledge in the content areas. The former served as a supplement to content classes to meet the students' curiosity and interest, while the latter clarified or reinforced conceptual issues that had been forgotten by or remained unclear to the students.

The programme students outperformed the other students in content classes. Their performance was also better than it had been before the CBI programme. As a content lecturer commented in the programme report,

> Some of the legal knowledge had been introduced before the CBI programme. However, it was either forgotten or incorrectly understood by the students. This programme reinforced the legal knowledge and deepened students' understanding of some fundamental theories in law. Thus it helped students not only to know what but also how and why.
>
> (My translation from the original report in Chinese)

The CBI programme also enhanced the students' opportunities in content practice outside the classroom. According to an on-line chat with a content teacher, a programme student helped a foreign visitor with the English and legal knowledge he acquired in the CBI classes. He was very happy and proud of his performance. He expressed this exciting experience in the group discussion in a content class. Although there may not be many such opportunities in WLC students' real-life situations, this incident proved to be a source of motivation to the whole group.

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4.2.4   Students' development in cognitive skills and learning strategies

In addition to the enhanced motivation and language and content competence, the programme students also started to notice, practise, and generate specific learning strategies. The students' development in cognitive skills and learning strategies was noticed by the CBI teachers through CBI and content classroom observations and recorded in my work diaries. Students' responses to the end-of-programme questionnaire also reflected this development. Most of these strategies were EFL-oriented since language learning were still emphasised by the language teacher as the main course presenter and students as EFL learners in the programme. Some of the strategies, however, were transferable and therefore applied to students' study in content areas.

Regarding lexical items as the most important factor in content-based language learning, the students paid considerable attention to effective strategies in vocabulary acquisition. They listened very carefully to the teachers' explicit instructions on these strategies and applied them to their practice immediately. Some of the strategies were new to the students, such as reading and memorizing the new words with their spelling rather than phonetic transcription. Some other strategies had been introduced previously in language classes. However, they were not practised by the students due to the insufficient emphasis of the teacher or the lack of opportunities. These strategies included speaking aloud in English, selecting important words according to the frequency of their appearance in the texts, guessing the meaning of words according to the context, etc.

After being pushed or encouraged to practise these strategies, the students were able to evaluate the effectiveness of different strategies in their own learning and to build their own strategic framework. Many of the strategies introduced in CBI classes were perceived as bold and risky by the students and they were surprised by the effectiveness of these strategies for their English language study.   As expressed by a

student in his learning diary,

> I have never taken the risk to use the words that I was not sure about the meaning or the
>
> usage. My teachers always told me to be very careful and always use the safest words and
>
> expressions, even if they might look or sound strange. We should bear in mind that we are
>
> learning and using a FOREIGN language. Therefore we should obey the foreign rules that
>
> we only know for certain.

> A few days ago, my CBI teacher encouraged me to use as many new words appearing in the
>
> text as possible. So I did. Then I found a lot of words that used to be new and strange to me
>
> were like my old friends. I recognise their faces and know their meanings. I am making
>
> progress!

<div align="right">

(Excerpted from the students' diary

with some correction for the readers' understanding)

</div>

Strategies in note taking were also mentioned by most programme students. As reported by law lecturers in CBI group meeting and in their course report (see Appendix XIV), students tried to use these strategies in their content study and found them very helpful. These strategies included when and how to take notes and what to record. Opinions varied on note-taking strategies. Concerning the time for taking the notes, for example, some students insisted on simultaneous note-taking while the teacher was writing on the board so they could concentrate on the teachers' further explanations. Some argued that the most effective note-taking took place after the teachers' full instruction, so that the notes would be used as summary of the learners' understanding and comments for further study. Some even argued that pre-class notes were very helpful because questions marked from the preview made the learning in class concentrated.

The two law teachers said in a CBI group meeting that the CBI classes enhanced the students' content study. Some learning strategies that were introduced in or acquired

from the CBI programme were applied effectively by the students to their learning in content areas.

A special class meeting was held at the end of the CBI programme. CBI teachers and programme students sat together to discuss and comment on the programme. Learning strategies were the centre of the discussions. The students took the opportunity to ask their peers about effective language and content learning.

Introducing learning strategies might not the distinguishing feature of CBI. Many strategies acquired by the students were not CBI-specific either. However, the CBI programme in WLC focused students' attention on learning strategies as well as their effectiveness to develop the learners' sense of independence and individuality. The programme also raised the question whether more time should be spent on teaching learning strategies.

4.3 Content and language teachers' attitudes to and experience in CBI: answers to research questions five and six

The teacher is the centre of the analysis in this and the following sections. This section focuses on WLC teachers' attitudes towards CBI before the programme, while the following section analyses their involvement and reaction during the programme. Although some direct answers to research questions five and six (i.e. what kind of reactions does a CBI programme elicit from the content and the language teachers in WLC?) are provided in the next section, data in this section provide background information about the answers. Data presented and analysed in this section are based on teacher questionnaire and interviews before the CBI programme in WLC.

The content and the language teachers' attitude towards the feasibility and the necessity of CBI in WLC is introduced in the first half of this section. Most content

teachers in WLC think that CBI meets the students' language needs. However, they are concerned about issues including the students' background, the teachers' development and other administrative problems in conducting a CBI programme. The language teachers in WLC hold a negative attitude and view CBI as neither necessary nor feasible due to the students' limited language proficiency.

Analysis of the WLC teachers' attitudes to CBI is followed by an introduction of CBI experience of the content and the language teachers from other colleges and universities in China. It seems that the CBI teachers from the content department are more confident in teaching the content knowledge through the medium of English, whereas those from the language department are less confident about their expertise in the content area. Although language skills seem to carry more weight in these CBI classes, the language teachers show great interest in the content subject and are willing to develop their knowledge in the area.

4.3.1   WLC content teachers' attitudes

Twenty questionnaires were distributed to the twenty law teachers with a full response rate. Among these content lecturers, eight were female whereas twelve were male. With an average age of thirty-five, these teachers were aged from twenty-five to forty-five. They had, on average, thirteen years of experience in content teaching, which ranged from three to twenty-three years. As mentioned in chapter three, all of these teachers had a BA degree or a diploma in law, while six had received a Master's degree and one was studying for a PhD degree in law.

4.3.1.1 Content teachers' viewpoints on the importance of English to WLC students

It was shown from the questionnaires that most content teachers regarded English study as important or very important to WLC students. However, there were still twenty per cent of the teachers who insisted that English was not important or not

very important to the students (see table 4.15).

Importance of English	Number of the teachers	Educational degree and average years of teaching	Percentage
Very important	4	MA and PhD(in progress), 16	20 %
Important	12	BA and MA, 13	60 %
Not very important	3	BA, 8	15 %
Not important	1	Diploma in law, 13	5 %

Table 4.15 Content teachers' view of the importance of English to WLC students

a)   Two types of English

The content teachers' views on the importance of English to the students seemed to contradict what they said in informal conversation before the CBI programme. The teacher who claimed that he was not sure about the importance of English in the conversation answered in the questionnaire that English was very important. The main reason for the apparently inconsistent answer to the same question concerned the teachers' perception of two different types of English: general English and legal English. As explained by the teacher,

> The (general) English that our students learned from the language classes would not make much difference in their real life. They are law students and expect to work in the legal profession. I don't know how much the employers will be impressed even if the students have high marks in this kind of English. However, I am sure it will be helpful if our students have a reasonably good level of legal English.
>
> (My translation from the original Chinese conversation with the teacher)

According to content teachers' opinions, law-related English language skills were important and practically meaningful to the WLC students. In contrast, English

introduced in traditional language classes in WLC would not make much difference to the students' future career. However, due to the teachers' professional responsibility and the high appreciation of education in the Chinese culture, no teacher has discouraged the students' language study any more than their studies in any other field.

b)   The value of English and the teachers' academic qualifications

Content teachers' views on the importance of English seemed to bear some relationship to their own learning and teaching experiences. As can be seen from the table above, the higher the degree received and the more years of teaching experience obtained by the content teachers, the more they value English study for their students. As asserted by the Principal of WLC, who was currently studying for a PhD degree in law, a good mastery in English provided a broader source of content information and therefore might enhance one's opportunities for academic study or professional success.

Those who argued that English was not very important supported their view with the fact that English was hardly used by themselves either as former law students or as present law teachers and part-time practitioners. As said by a content teacher who regarded English as not very important:

> My English was never good when I was a student, but it was good enough for me to get my
>
> degree finally. I am not saying that I am a successful lawyer. However, none of my cases so
>
> far has involved a high demand for English.
>
> (My translation from the follow-up interview)

The only teacher who considered English as not important failed to get a BA degree because he did not pass the English exam. Interestingly, he used to spend a lot of time studying English in his spare time as a law teacher. Maintaining a good

interpersonal relationship with me as an EFL teacher in WLC, he always asked me about problems he encountered in English language learning.

4.3.1.2 Content teachers' attitude to the necessity of CBI in WLC

As discussed previously, eighty percent of content teachers considered English, especially legal English, as important to the WLC students. However, a lower percentage of the content teachers considered the CBI approach, in which English and law was taught concurrently, as necessary in WLC.

Attitude	Number of the teachers	Percentage
Positive	13	65 %
Negative	3	15 %
Unsure	4	20 %

Table 4.16 Law teachers' attitude to the necessity of CBI in WLC

It can be seen in table 4.16 that sixty-five percent of content teachers held a positive attitude to CBI, claiming that the integration of English study with the content learning was needed by the students. Not surprisingly, their attitude was closely related to their view of English as important to the students.

Although they agreed with the importance of English, some content teachers still did not think the integration of English and law instruction was necessary. Certainly neither did those who regarded English as unimportant to the students. As one of them said in a personal conversation after the questionnaire:

> English is obviously important, and it would be ideal if our students can learn law and
> English at the same time in the same class. The problem is, can they? Meanwhile, who is
> able to teach this kind of class? How long and how much does it take to train a qualified
> CBI teacher? How much should they be paid? Considering the uncertain teaching result and

the problems during the process, I would certainly not bother.

Lacking experience in teaching with the CBI approach was the major concern of the rest of the content teachers. Therefore, they were very cautious about the necessity of applying CBI to classes in WLC. Due to the shortage of information about the effectiveness of CBI in other educational settings in China, these teachers would rather insist on a neutral answer to the question. In addition, they were also concerned about the demands of CBI for students' general abilities and the teachers' qualifications.

4.3.1.3 Content teachers' attitudes to the feasibility of CBI in WLC

The content teachers' concerns about the demands of CBI on the learners and the teachers inevitably affected their attitude towards whether the approach was feasible in WLC. Although many teachers thought that CBI was needed by the students, they were concerned about the potential problems including teacher training, students' background and financial issues, etc. It seemed to them that however necessary the CBI approach was to the students; it might not be practical for WLC to offer CBI classes. Therefore, compared with their attitudes to the necessity of CBI in WLC, the content teachers were less positive about the feasibility of the approach (see table 4.17).

Attitude	Number of teachers	Percentage
Positive	11	55 %
Negative	3	15 %
Unsure	6	30 %

Table 4.17 Content teachers' attitude to the feasibility of CBI in WLC

As seen from table 4.17, two content teachers who regarded CBI as necessary to the

students in WLC were less confident about the appropriateness of CBI in WLC. According to the conversations with and between these teachers, the qualification of the teachers was the major concern. As they said, the approach might be needed by the students, but a big problem was who was able to teach them. However, instead of switching to a negative attitude, these teachers were willing to keep an open mind about the practice of CBI in WLC.

It was not surprising to receive negative attitude again from the three content teachers who considered CBI unnecessary in WLC. During personal conversations, one of them claimed that CBI was beyond WLC teachers' ability and responsibility. The students should and could join special training courses offered by companies or agencies when they actually encountered some particular needs in their future work.

So far, it can be seen that the content teachers' positive attitudes to CBI dropped with the concerns about practical issues raised by the approach (see table 4.18). However, it was encouraging to see their being cautious rather than negative towards the practice of CBI in WLC. Moreover, a persistent positive attitude by over half of the content teachers in WLC indicated a high expectation of the approach. In addition, it should be borne in mind that some content teachers' consistent negative attitude to CBI provided valuable information for effective CBI classes since they may raise issues that might have been overlooked by CBI teachers. Their reaction to the CBI programme in WLC was also worth serious consideration.

Attitude	Importance of English	Necessity of CBI in WLC	Feasibility of CBI in WLC
Positive	80% (very important or important)	65 %	55 %
Negative	20% (not very important or unimportant)	15 %	15 %
Unsure	0%	20 %	30 %

Table 4.18 Summary of content teachers' attitudes to CBI

4.3.1.4 CBI pedagogical suggestions from the content teachers

Although content teachers' attitudes towards CBI varied, there was a high rate of agreement on the attention to the students' particular knowledge background during the practice of CBI. Table 4.19 provides an overview of the importance of the four factors for a successful CBI class.

Rank	Factor	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Students' knowledge background	17	85 %
2	Legal knowledge of the language teacher	2	10 %
3	Administrative support	1	5 %
4	Cooperation between language and law departments	0	0 %

Table 4.19 Importance of the four factors in CBI classes ranked by content teachers

As seen in the table above, the students' knowledge background was emphasised by most of the content teachers as the most important factor in CBI classes. Some content teachers even provided specific pedagogical suggestions at the end of the questionnaire. Most of these suggestions took into account the students' needs based on their learning background, such as accommodation to the students' level in EFL, introduction of information on learning and working abroad to increase the students' interest in the class, etc.

Since the content teachers believed that language skills should be introduced by language teachers, they seemed to be fairly tolerant of language teachers' knowledge level in law. As revealed in the table, only two content teachers regarded language teachers' knowledge in the legal area as the most important factor in the CBI classes

in WLC.

Most teachers viewed teaching as an activity involving the teachers and the learners as the major participants, so that administrative support received a lower rank in table 4.19. The college administrators seemed to have a large amount of power over students and staff as they controlled the finances. However, their power was generally reduced when particular pedagogical issues were involved.

Due to such complex reasons as workload and barriers between departments, inter-disciplinary cooperation was ranked as the least important by content teachers in WLC. According to the questionnaire (see Appendix V) , sixteen out of twenty content teachers said that they would help the language teachers as much as they *could*, while only four claimed that they would provide as much help as *needed* by the language teachers.

The limited degree of help offered by the content teachers might be related to their modest estimation of their abilities. Low confidence about inter-departmental co-operation was another reason. As a content teacher wrote in the programme report:

> It was not very common for teachers from the same department to discuss problems in
>
> teaching because of competition for promotion. Inter-departmental communication was
>
> even rarer. Sometimes there was even implicit hostility between teachers from different
>
> departments since they didn't have to maintain a good personal or working relationship.
>
> (My translation from the original version in Chinese)

Although they did not feel they could give a great deal of help to the language teachers, twelve content teachers claimed that they needed *very much* to develop their legal English with the help of language teachers. Seven of them said that *not much* help was needed from the language teachers, and only one insisted that he

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needed *no help at all* from the language teachers to develop his language skills in the legal area. The content teachers' linguistic independence was also revealed in interviews with CBI teachers from other colleges and universities. They respected the language teachers' expertise. However, they insisted that (general) English language teachers would not be helpful as far as the content-specific English was involved.

4.3.2 WLC language teachers' attitudes

There were four English language teachers in WLC. They had all obtained a BA degree in English language and culture. Two of the four English language teachers had obtained a diploma in law. However, their study in law was as an opportunity for a better professional position provided by WLC as a law college. Students' potential needs, legal English, for instance, were not originally taken into account. The four EFL teachers' ages ranged from twenty-three to thirty-six, with correspondingly one to fourteen years of experience in teaching English as a foreign language to Chinese students.

Compared with the diverse attitudes to CBI from the content teachers, there were unanimous answers to the necessity and feasibility of the CBI approach in WLC. Without hesitation, the four EFL teachers claimed that they would not introduce any content-area knowledge or information in their language classes unless there was such a requirement from the administrators. As said by an English language teacher who had been teaching in WLC for fourteen years:

> The CBI approach sounds ideal, but it is just not what the students can cope with. The students may think they need law-related language skills. However, it is not possible for them to understand the lowest level of legal knowledge delivered in English. I am so sure about this. Therefore I would not try even if I could teach law in English.
>
> (My translation from the transcription of the conversation)

The rest of the EFL teachers in the department showed their agreement with what was said above during the group interview and the follow-up personal conversations.

The language teachers' negative attitudes to CBI seemed to derive from factors in three dimensions: low estimation of the students' abilities, feeling uncertain about the integrative approach, and their dominant roles in English language teaching in WLC.

4.3.2.1 'The students are not ready for CBI'

After a few communications, teachers from the language department in WLC realised that CBI distinguished itself from ESP by concurrent emphasis on both language skills and content knowledge. However, they were concerned that the language used for content teaching in CBI classes might be well above the students' present level of proficiency. Most students entered WLC with general low marks (e.g. 56 in English compared with 60 as the passing grade) in most of their subjects including English. As discussed in the first section of this chapter, students' English language proficiency was not developed remarkably in the traditional language classes in WLC. The teachers attributed their students' less advanced language proficiency to inadequate investment of time and energy in language learning. As claimed by the language teachers, "our students need more discipline than motivation, more diligence than learning strategies".

4.3.2.2 'We do not want to teach in CBI'

A second reason for the language teachers' negative attitude to CBI related to their inadequate knowledge about the approach. According to language teachers in WLC,

ESP is challenging enough due to the involvement of a large number of scientific

terminologies. However, I can still manage the class since it is just a matter of vocabulary. I

haven't heard of CBI. I do not think I can teach any other content course in English. Why

should I?

<div align="right">(Excerpted and translated from the L1 conversations)</div>

The CBI approach may appear as a challenge or threat to both language and content

teachers: Having degrees in English and law did not mean the teachers could teach

law in English or legal English. From language teachers' perspective, traditional

language teaching is rather safe and easy. However, one needs to try the approach to

know what is like.

4.3.2.3 'We do not have to teach in CBI'

Another reason for the language teachers' attitudes to CBI lay in the local culture in

WLC. None of the administrative staff in WLC had experience in language teaching.

Therefore, teachers from the language department had most say, if not all, in

choosing course materials and teaching methods. They seemed to be the only experts

and authority in EFL teaching in WLC. CBI was neither suggested nor mentioned to

the administrative staff as an approach to language and/or content teaching. With

their insistence or resistance, CBI was not required officially in language classes in

WLC. The CBI approach might be conducted only if it was an administrative

requirement, which, in the case of WLC, depended heavily on the educational policy

of the government.

The WLC language teachers' attitude towards CBI was shared by many language

teachers in other colleges and universities in China. However, teachers with teaching

experience in CBI who were interviewed for this project viewed the approach from a

very different angel. Some of these CBI teachers were from language departments,

while the others had experience in teaching content courses; their views are reported

in the next section.

4.3.3 CBI experiences of the content lecturers

A series of interviews was conducted with some teachers from colleges and universities before the CBI programme in WLC. The aim of these interviews was to collect pedagogical information from experienced CBI teachers. The focus of interviews with CBI teachers from the content departments was on their language background, language use in the classroom instruction and student assessment, selection of teaching materials and pedagogical comments from their own experiences.

4.3.3.1 The content teachers' language educational background

Four CBI teachers, three male and one female, from content departments of different colleges and universities were interviewed. They all had ten to seventeen years of teaching experience. However, none of them had taught through CBI for over five years since it was a new pedagogical approach in China. Through the medium of English, these teachers taught content subjects such as physics, mathematics and computer science.

Three out of the four content teachers had experience in learning a content subject through the medium of English. They had received a Master's or PhD degree from universities in Finland or Canada. The other teacher who taught mathematics in one of the top ten universities in China had no working or studying experience in English-speaking countries. Nor had he received English medium content teaching in China. However, his mathematics classes taught through English were very popular in the university and received a full rate of satisfaction among the students.

With proficient content knowledge and experience of learning content through the

medium of English, three of the content teachers never consulted the language department for linguistic assistance. They were confident in their content and language abilities. As said by the CBI teacher from the department of physics:

> I have never consulted language teachers. Even if I happened to be unsure about some terminology or grammatical items, I will solve these problems by referring to content dictionaries and related literature.
>
> (My translation from the transcript of the interview)

It seemed that the mathematics teacher was more cautious about his English-medium teaching. According to the interview, he would contact language teachers when language became a problem to his students or himself. Bearing in mind practical issues such as time and other inconveniences, he collected all the questions and contacted the language teachers in person.

As can be seen from the interviews, CBI teachers from content departments possessed sufficient content knowledge and a reasonable degree of language skills. They might come across language problems in content teaching. Consulting original documents or their colleagues as native English speakers were preferred by some, if not most, content teachers. However, due to personal relationships or factors in the local educational settings, it was unusual for a content teacher to consult the language teachers for some language issues.

4.3.3.2 The content teacher's use of English language for teaching

All the four content teachers taught subject courses in English since it was required by their colleges or universities. Although all the interviewees as content experts claimed that they had conducted full English-medium instruction, they admitted that language accommodation was made to increase content comprehensibility. This kind of accommodation can be explained through the teachers' statement in the interview:

Namely, our CBI classes are full English-medium content teaching. It is the main attraction of the course since most of the students enrolled in the course attempt to study abroad after graduation. However, this does not mean these students possess a high level of English language proficiency. L1 illustration is demanded by the students when some complex content problems are introduced by the teacher. Of course, the use of L1 should be agreed on by the teacher.

(My translation of the transcribed interview with teacher A)

I have no problem with English-medium instruction, but I do worry about students' competence in understanding content knowledge introduced to them in a foreign language.

(My translation of the transcribed interview with teacher B)

Closely related to the students' language abilities in interpreting content knowledge, characteristics of the content subject was another reason for the CBI teachers' language accommodation. Teacher C and teacher D were from the same university, but they taught different courses. English was used in both of their classes, i.e., business English and computer science. Full English-medium teaching was adopted in the business English classes, whereas the teacher in the computer science classes sometimes resorted to L1. As explained by the teacher, due to the students' previous experience in learning English for general purposes in traditional language classes,

Business English was taught completely in English because the subject did not contain specific content difficulty. However, computer science was a bilingual course, which means both Chinese and English are used for instruction.

(My translation of the transcribed interview with teacher D)

It might be arguable that business English was more likely an ESP course. However, according to teacher C, the aim of the course was to teach business content and the related language skills. The teachers were from the content departments and tended to accommodate English language use according to the content difficulty.

4.3.3.3 English language used for students' discussion and course assessment

According to the interviews with the CBI teachers, the students were required to discuss content topics in English. At the beginning, the students found the L2 discussion interesting because of the involvement of a different language. However, the enthusiasm vanished very quickly due to the difficulty of L2 communication. Some students found they needed to invest extra time and energy before and after each class to improve their language skills for content-related L2 communicative purposes. Some students became quiet in group discussion and preferred to work on the topics on their own. "Only students with competent English proficiency are keen on and comfortable with talking about content information in English. Those with less advanced English skills are most likely quiet" (From the interview with teacher D).

Apart from their inadequate interest or confidence in content-related L2 discussion, these students' inactive engagement in the discussion might be related to the influence of the traditional Chinese cultural and their personalities. As one of the content teachers said in the interview:

> Classroom discussion is required to be in English. However, some Chinese students do not like discussing, and an unfamiliar language makes the discussion even more difficult. They prefer independent thinking, which is strongly encouraged in the traditional Chinese educational culture. Some students are just as quiet as they are in other classes. Some are unwilling to participate in the group discussion since they think it is unnecessary compared with discussing the topics in L1.
>
> (My translation of the transcribed interview with teacher A)

Core texts and supplementary materials in these CBI classes were written in English. The students were required to do their homework and dissertation in English too. However, content mastery was the sole standard of marking by CBI teachers from

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the content departments. Language mistakes affected the students' mark only when they caused misinterpretation or confusion. As claimed by a content teacher,

> The only thing I focus on when marking is students' content knowledge. No points will be deducted unless very serious grammatical mistakes occur to affect the expression and comprehension. I do not judge students' language accuracy at all.
>
> (My translation of the transcribed interview with teacher A)

It seemed that in CBI classes presented by teachers from the content departments, content knowledge was the focus and final target of teaching. Content comprehensibility was prioritised over English language abilities. Both teachers and students resorted to L1 in order to clarity the content meaning. The priority of content knowledge in these classes set a contrast to that in CBI classes provided by teachers from the language department, which will be discussed in the following section.

4.3.4 CBI experience of the language lecturers

Three CBI teachers from the language department of two colleges and one university were interviewed. They were all female with respectively five, nine and sixteen years of teaching experience. Two of them were interviewed face to face, and one through on-line conversation. Similar to those with the content lectures, the interviews with the language experts focused on the teachers' content background, the use of language for teaching, learning and course assessment.

4.3.4.1 The teachers' content background

Two of the three teachers from the language department taught international trade and one taught logistics as the content subjects. However, none of them had received any training in the respective areas. Neither did they have working experience related

to the subjects.

In these colleges or universities, there was an official requirement that at least one or two subject matter courses should be taught in English. According to the language teachers, the content teachers refused to teach their courses in English mainly because they were not confident in their English language proficiency. Another reason was that they did not want to sacrifice content meaning as their pedagogical target to language as the medium of teaching. As a result, the language teachers had to take the responsibility. However, all the subjects taught by these language teachers in English were either non-credit bearing or optional. The students registered in these classes due to their interest in the content-related language or information in the content area itself. The study of these subjects was not significant to the students' future career.

Lacking sufficient training in the content area, the language teachers had to either 'encourage students to search for content information themselves and share with the teacher' (according to the interview with language teacher A), or 'buy some basic reference books and learn with the students' (translated from the interview with language teacher B). As a result, the teachers either 'admitted their insufficient content knowledge to the students', or 'narrowed their content instruction to what they knew for sure' (translated from the interview with language teacher C).

4.3.4.2   Language as the centre of the CBI classes

Owing to the inadequacy or uncertainty of the language teachers' content knowledge, these teachers placed more emphasis on developing the students' language abilities. In these classes, English was used as the medium of instruction, and the students' EFL level decided the content topics involved in the classes. As said by a language teacher in the interview:

I check the word list after the core text before each CBI class. I will use simplified materials or change the content topic if the language knowledge involved is above my students' English language level. I make this kind of adjustment even in the classes when my students' facial emotion makes me think I am teaching something too difficult for them.

(My translation from the transcribed interview)

According to the interview, content materials were used by the CBI teachers from the language department for language teaching purposes. Although the teachers integrated content information in the CBI classes and learned it along with their students, the accuracy and sufficiency of the content knowledge gained by the students needed to be questioned.

4.3.4.3   Language used by the students and the course assessment

The priority of the target language over the content information in the language teachers' CBI classes was also reflected by the classroom interaction and course assessment. The students were required to answer all the questions in English. English language was also the only 'legal' language for group discussions. However, English-medium discussion as one of the student activities was abandoned by some language teachers when they noticed that the students' language proficiency was not sufficient for group discussion. As said by one of the interviewees,

All my questions were based on the content knowledge introduced in the CBI classes. They should not be overly difficult and therefore the students are required to answer the question in English. There is no L2 group discussion in my classes because my students are not able to do it. I cannot force my students to discuss in English and it is not possible for me to supervise all the discussion groups and make sure they talk in English. At least they are speaking in English when they are answering my questions and I can help them one by one.

(My translation from the transcribed interview with language teacher A)

The language teachers' preference for language knowledge and skills was also revealed in students' course assessment. According to the interviews, students were normally required to finish their exercises or essays in English. Language skills were taken into account in the teachers' marking. Some language teachers agreed that the students could answer questions in the exams in L1. However, extra marks were given to the students who answered in English but with the same or similar content accuracy.

Information elicited from the interview with these teachers should not be generalized to all the CBI classes offered by language teachers. However, it indicated that language teachers' linguistic emphasis was related to their language expertise and their limited content background. It might be safer for these teachers to focus more on the language before they receive systematic education in the content area.

4.4 Content and language teachers' involvement in and reaction to the CBI programme in WLC: answers to research questions five and six

The CBI teachers from the content and language departments in other colleges and universities provided valuable information and pedagogical advice. Pre-programme questionnaires and interviews in WLC revealed the language and the content teachers' attitudes towards the necessity and feasibility of CBI classes. Information collected before the programme as well as the corresponding preparation contributed to the CBI programme in WLC.

Based on my understanding about the content and language teachers' different attitudes towards CBI, I was prepared for their different degrees of involvement in the programme. However, the actual difference was still beyond my expectation.

4.4.1 The content teachers' involvement in and reaction to the programme

Teaching staff from content departments provided valuable information for my research project. Pre-programme questionnaires, interviews and informal conversations with the content teachers in WLC revealed their diverse attitudes to the necessity and feasibility of the CBI approach in WLC. Two content teachers from law departments joined the CBI programme with positive attitudes. Their involvement in the programme was reflected by their roles in CBI classes. Other teachers from the content departments also showed interest in the programme and contributed advice and suggestions.

4.4.1.1 The content teachers' role as members of the CBI teaching team

As explained in chapter three, two lecturers, one from the department of civil law and one from the department of criminal law, joined the CBI team. They played different roles during the three stages of the CBI programme in WLC. The adjustment of these content teachers' role in CBI classes also reflected the process of applying the CBI approach to the specific educational setting in WLC.

At the beginning stages, the content teachers shared the role of lesson presenters with the language teacher. There was a fairly shared workload between the language and the content teachers in CBI classes. As can be seen from table 3.4, content teachers summarised or provided brief repetition of the content knowledge in L1 and facilitated student discussion with content-related information, while I, as the language teacher, delivered content knowledge in L2 and assisted student practice with my language expertise.

The similar workload between content and language teachers might derive from their mutual respect. Moreover, since none of these teachers had experience in CBI, an evenly shared workload might be reasonable at the beginning of the programme.

However, this formalistic interpretation of inter-discipline cooperation seemed to reduce the effective teaching time and therefore lead to a decrease in the effectiveness of CBI. For example, the L1 summary provided by the content teachers was almost a repetition of what had been presented in L2 by the language teacher. Moreover, language and content teachers based their instruction on individual lesson plans. There might be a poor link between the content knowledge involved in the language teacher's lesson plan and that in the content teachers'.

During the second stage of the CBI programme, the content teachers' role as course presenters seemed to change from formal knowledge delivery (see table 3.6 on page 188). However, there was an increase in their role as teaching assistants during this stage. They provided the language teacher with lesson plans and pedagogical advice for each CBI class. They also offer supplementary explanation about complex concepts during the period of student practice and production.

The content teachers' role as teaching assistants in CBI classes was developed during the final stage (see table 3.7 on page 197). Having acquired some practical experience from CBI classes, the content teachers were then able to build a closer link between the CBI classes and their content lessons. For example, it was the content teachers' idea to bring student-collected content information to CBI classes. Meanwhile, their expertise in the content area was effectively used to guide students' information searching. Table 4.16 demonstrates the development of the roles of content teachers in CBI classes in the WLC programme.

	Stage 1	**Stage 2**	**Stage 3**
Roles	1. Course presenter 2. Content assistant	CBI teaching assistant	1. CBI teaching assistant 2. Programme adviser
Examples	● Preparing their own content lesson plans (role 1) ● Summarising content knowledge delivered by the L2 teacher (role 1) ● Providing content-area facilitation in student discussions (role 2)	● Providing L2 teacher with content lesson plans ● Assessing the students' content improvement ● Offering students supplementary explanations and clarifications	● Facilitating students' information searching (role 1) ● Preparing students with relevant background knowledge in content classes (role 1) ● Providing pedagogical advice for the CBI programme (role 2)

Table 4.20 Content teachers' role in the CBI programme in WLC

4.4.1.2 Other content teachers' involvement

As mentioned in chapter three, the heads of the two law departments and four lecturers from other content departments also attended CBI classes. They attended CBI classes to show interest in the particular CBI teaching form. Their attendance was also inspired by the two law lectures as the CBI teachers' feedback on students' development in the programme.

The other four content teachers were from the foundation department. They taught courses like Chinese literature, history and geography. In the beginning, their attendance was motivated by the desire of integrated learning in law, as the main subject of their students, as well as the related language skills. These teachers regarded the CBI programme as an opportunity to refresh their own English language proficiency acquired through university education and to learn some basic knowledge in law.

The content teachers were interested in the pedagogical effectiveness of the CBI approach applied in the programme. As said by one of the teacher observers during the short break of a CBI class,

I just want to know whether my English language proficiency is enough to understand English legal materials presented in this kind of classes. I rarely used English after I graduated from the university. It is nice to pick it up again. ... ... I do not intend to be a lawyer or a law teacher. However, since all my students major in law, it is nice to keep pace with them. ... ... I would be very happy to do both at the same time.

(My translation from the conversation in L1)

These content teachers were also interested in CBI as a pedagogical approach which has enjoyed increasing popularity in higher education in China. They joined the CBI classes and evaluated the practicality of the teaching materials and the English language for the CBI classes. It should be borne in mind that this assessment was made by these teachers against their own learning and teaching background rather than that of their students.

Pedagogical suggestions provided by these teachers contributed considerably to the establishment of a WLC-specific CBI model. As noted by a member of the CBI team, 'one will know better about how the students feel when one is in the same situation as the students' (my translation from the programme report of a law lecturer in the CBI team).

4.4.1.3 Content teachers' reactions to the programme

Content teachers' different levels of involvement in the CBI programme resulted in their different reactions to the approach. The two content lecturers who worked as the CBI team members in the programme found that CBI was feasible in WLC and had a

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positive impact on the programme students' content and language study. Other content teachers who were not involved in the team-teaching showed great interest in the CBI approach but were concerned about running CBI courses in the regular curriculum.

a)   The law lecturers' reactions

After participating in the programme as members of the CBI team, the two content teachers showed a new attitude to inter-disciplinary cooperation. The programme also developed their views about students' learning abilities. Cooperation with the language teacher during the CBI programme developed their mutual understanding and respect, which proved helpful for data collection and analysis after the programme.

Inter-disciplinary co-operation was regarded as key to the success of the CBI programme. Harmonious cooperation required clarified responsibilities, focused contributions, and led to high working efficiency. As expressed by a content teacher in the team in her programme report (see Appendix XII):

> I have never realized that cooperation between faculties can be so powerful. ... Frequent
>
> communication helps to harmonize our team teaching.   There use to be ignorance and
>
> hostility between the departments. ... The CBI programme could not have been so successful
>
> without close coordination between language and law teachers. ... The spirit of
>
> team-teaching should be introduced to the college as a whole.
>
>   (Excerpted and translated from the original programme report in L1)

Another lesson learned from the CBI programme was the importance of developing the students' learning potential. Having witnessed the effort and subsequent progress their students made during the CBI programme, the content teachers realised that they might have underestimated their students' potential abilities. As reflected by the

programme schedule (see table 3.3), the CBI classes in WLC were an added course. However, most programme students were willing to make an extra effort for the integrative study. Consequently, the students were rewarded with enhanced language, content and cognitive abilities. Being inspired by the students' active engagement in the programme, the two content lecturers acknowledged the significance of providing opportunities for the students to develop their learning potential. As they argued in the programme reports and on-line communication with me after the programme, "it was the teachers who were to blame for not giving their students enough chance to show how much and how well they could learn about a subject course even through a foreign language".

b)   Other WLC content teachers' reactions

Content teachers who attended CBI classes as learners thought that the CBI approach was effective in WLC. They were delighted to see the development achieved by themselves as well as their students. However, the feasibility of CBI was challenged by some practical issues. These issues included the demand for devoted and qualified teaching staff, the students' low English language proficiency and a number of administrative problems. The worries were shared by teachers who were interested in the approach but did not visit the classes. They expressed their concern after the programme:

> This programme has been successful. I was moved by the devotedness of the CBI teachers
>
> and admire the smooth cooperation in the team. However, I doubt that this case can be
>
> widely applied to all the other departments in WLC or other colleges. Moreover, I am not
>
> sure how much the CBI teachers should be paid and how much the college is willing to pay.
>
> Having said this, the programme is good, honestly. It is definitely good for the students.
>
> (My translation from a conversation
>
> with the head of Chinese department in WLC)

It was not surprising that not all the content teachers in WLC found CBI desirable. Those who held a negative attitude to the necessity and/or feasibility of the CBI approach were not interested in the CBI programme. Neither did any of them pay particular attention to programme students' performance in their classes. That might have been because of their unwillingness to develop their content-related language proficiency or to work as a team with teachers form the language department.

Some of the content teachers' negative reactions might have also resulted from the feeling of being ignored by the programme. Due to the heavy workload during the programme, I kept in very close contact only with teachers who participated or showed interest in the programme. Their comments and suggestions were treated seriously and carefully analysed.

4.4.2 Language teachers' involvement in and reaction to the programme

One aim of this section is to demonstrate and analyse the impact of the language teachers' negative attitude to CBI on their involvement in the WLC programme. As discussed previously in this chapter, the language teachers in WLC unanimously held a negative attitude to the CBI approach. They argued that there was an unbridgeable gap between CBI and the WLC students' English language proficiency. In the teachers' own words, "our students are just not ready to learn law through English". The language teachers also regarded the approach as challenging to themselves due to the dual requirement about the teachers' knowledge in the language and the content areas.

The other aim of this section is to demonstrate how I, as the language teacher in the CBI team, adjusted my roles with the development of the CBI programme in WLC. The demonstration may indicate that CBI is challenging, but an effective CBI programme is achievable with considerable effort.

4.4.2.1 The WLC language teachers' involvement

According to the pre-programme interviews, the language teachers in WLC thought CBI was not an appropriate approach for college level students. However, it was important to take on board their advice and suggestions during the progress of the programme. It was also expected that they might change their attitudes towards CBI by attending the courses or receiving related information from their students.

Efforts were made to engage the language teachers in the CBI programme. Considering that these teachers might feel uncomfortable helping me as the former head of the department and a PhD student in a British university, a private party was held before the programme. The party aimed to refresh the personal relationship with the language teachers in WLC and encourage them to visit the forthcoming CBI courses.

It seemed that the language teachers retained their principled objection to CBI since they showed little concern during the programme. They did not offer to attend the CBI classes or to provide pedagogical suggestions. However, the private party did help to rebuild cordial relations with every teacher in the language department. This relationship helped me with follow-up data analysis and future research after the CBI programme in WLC.

Language teachers' objection to CBI mainly resulted from their concern about students' limited English language ability. As agreed by WLC language teachers in the interview, '(our) students are not ready for CBI'. They complained that the WLC students' language proficiency was decreasing every year since more and more of the kind who used to come to WLC can now enter universities by paying an extra tuition fee. They also said that they had to lower the standard of marking or choose easier course materials for language classes.

Another reason related to these teachers' inadequate understanding of the CBI approach. Considering CBI as English-medium content teaching, some language teachers worried that they might be the only ones who would understand the course. In fact, wide use of English in CBI classes at the beginning stage did cause a number of students to drop out of the programme. A combined use of L1 and L2 was the feature of the WLC-specific CBI procedures. It was hoped that these language teachers would develop a better understanding of CBI by participating in or visiting the CBI classes in WLC.

4.4.2.2 My roles as the language teacher in the CBI team

With limited support from the language department in WLC, I was the only language teacher involved in CBI classes during the programme. Corresponding to the change of content teachers' role at different stages of the programme, my role changed as well.

At the initial stage, I worked as the main course presenter while the law lecturers summarised the content in Chinese. This role was based on the conception of CBI as an approach in which the target language was the only medium of content instruction. Taking advantage of my English language proficiency, I modified the language to the students' level of comprehension. I also provided linguistic assistance in order for the students to discuss content topics in English.

At the second stage of the CBI programme, there was no drastic change in the language teacher's role. However, English was not the only language used for delivering content information. The use of both L1 and L2 (i.e. English) was dependent on the complexity of the content and the difficulty of language knowledge involved. Since the two law lectures focused on preparing the teaching plan and assisting content-centred discussions, I was the only teacher responsible for the formal knowledge presentation. The presentation was underpinned by a combined

lesson plan from the three teachers in the CBI team. Linguistic assistance was provided upon the students' demand during the group discussions.

At the final stage, the CBI classes became more student-centred. The presentations and discussions were led by the programme students. The language teacher shared with the content lecturers the role of assistant in CBI classes. They helped the students with their respective expertise. However, being equipped with some basic legal knowledge and information, I, as the language teacher, was able to explain conceptual issues in the legal field. The law lecturers, on the other hand, were able to provide students with linguistic assistance, although not necessarily in English.

The language teacher also took responsibility for marking the homework and commenting on the learners' diaries throughout the programme. This was mainly because all the homework and diaries were written in English. The roles of the language teachers during the programme are summarised in table 4. 21.

	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
Roles	1 Course presenter 2 Language assistant 3 Marker of students' homework	1 Course presenter 2 Language assistance 3 Marker of students' homework	1 CBI teaching assistant 2 Marker of students' homework
Examples	● Preparing the language lesson plan (role 1) ● Providing content instruction in English (role 1) ● Providing linguistic facilitation in student discussions (role 2) ● Marking the exercises and commenting on learners' diaries (role 3)	● Preparing a combinative lesson plan (role 1) ● Providing content instruction in English and Chinese (role 1) ● Providing linguistic facilitation in student discussions (role 2) ● Marking the exercises and commenting on learners' diaries (role 3)	● Facilitating students' information searching and group discussions (role 1)

Table 4.21 Language teacher's role in the CBI programme in WLC

4.4.2.3   Language teachers' reactions to the programme

As mentioned previously, teachers from the language department of WLC did not participate in the programme, nor did they show interest in the progress of the programme. This also seemed to affect the personal relationship between them and me as former colleagues. There was neither personal nor professional contact between us during the period of the programme. Due to the heavy workload and course schedule during the programme, I was not able to talk about the issue with these language teachers.

An e-mail from a language teacher ten months after the programme broke the ice.

This teacher had over ten years of experience in English language teaching and possessed a degree in law. In the e-mail, she expressed her concern about the progress of my field research. Her attitude to the CBI programme, however, seemed still negative. As she repeated in a telephone conversation:

> It sounds a good idea. … However, it is not practical. … Anyway, I would not do it in my classes. I am not qualified, and the students' language proficiency is just not competent enough for that.
>
> (My translation of the conversation in Chinese)

Interestingly, since the new semester after the CBI programme, this teacher started teaching business English. The course seemed to be ESP-oriented, which was closely related to CBI. As the teacher said in an on-line conversation, the course was open as an administrative requirement, but the teacher had the choice of the course materials. The teacher also said that her teaching would be focused on some basic language skills required in foreign trade and commercial negotiations. It would be interesting to see how much business knowledge was introduced in the course.

The teacher's argument about the impracticality of CBI was based on her understanding of the students' language abilities rather than the experience of learning or teaching through the CBI approach. Pedagogical practice in many contexts had proved that CBI could be applied to students in various educational settings, from primary schools to universities. Understandably, teachers might need to know more about the CBI approach before they decide to apply it in their classes. However, a full understanding of an approach including CBI could not be obtained without applying and adjusting the approach in pedagogical practice. Moreover, there is a difference between 'I cannot do it' and 'I do not want to do it'. The teachers need to keep an open mind to new pedagogical approaches and the willingness to learn about them. As an educational fact, it is not always the case that the teachers teach what they want to teach. The students' needs and administrative

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requirements may also decide the content of teaching as well as the method of teaching.

Although language teachers in WLC did not attend the CBI classes during the programme, they revealed a certain degree of attention to the approach after the programme. According to the follow-up communication with these language teachers, the programme not only increased students' interesting in language learning but also inspired students to be responsible for their own study. A teacher from the language department said that some students complained that the two-month course was too short. Most students finished the homework of the last CBI class and asked their teachers to mark it.

According to the language teachers' reactions to the programme, it might be reasonable to say that CBI had potential in WLC, although efforts are needed for teachers to understand the approach and practise it appropriately with their students.

4.5   Administrative issues

According to teacher questionnaires before the programme, administrative support was considered by many WLC teachers as less important for a successful CBI programme than the students' knowledge background and the teachers' content and language abilities. However, the programme could not even start without the agreement from the administrators in WLC. The importance of administrative support was shown through its role in helping with the course design, financial issues and inter-disciplinary co-operation. Data presented and analyzed in this section are based on my personal communications with the Principal of WLC.

4.5.1   Concerns in course design

It is the routine in WLC as well as many other Chinese colleges and universities that

the curriculum for the new semester should be designed at the end of the old semester. One semester, which equals to five months, is the minimal teaching time for each subject course. Therefore, the two-month CBI programme brought about issues concerning course design. Although frequent on-line and telephone contact was conducted with administrative departments, these issues were not resolved until a week before the programme.

The teaching period involved in the programme was the first concern of the administrative staff. According to the Principal, there was no two-month subject in the curricular history of WLC. It was doubted whether two months was sufficient for the students to acquire a reasonable amount of knowledge in an academic area. However, it was regarded as risky to allow a whole semester for the practice of a new approach.

After several meetings within and between the administrative departments and the department of teaching affairs, the CBI programme was approved as a two-month training course (see Appendix I for the programme proposal) in addition to other regular subjects in WLC. The approval was based on the following factors:

4.5.1.1 Administrator's confidence in my language teaching experience in WLC

The administrative departments had confidence in my pedagogical skills in EFL classes. I had been teaching in WLC for nine years and my language classes won high degree of popularity among the students. The administrators believed that the CBI classes might at least result in extra opportunities for the students' language development.

4.5.1.2 A good personal and professional relationship between staff in administrative and academic departments and me

The Principal of WLC and the heads of relevant administrative departments agreed to provide official support for the CBI programme. However, it was not difficult to understand the importance of a good personal relationship for the smooth conduct of an administrative requirement. Considering the fact that I maintained a good relationship with most staff in WLC, the administrators were positive about the potential support I might receive as the coordinator of the programme.

4.5.1.3 Administrators' confidence in my qualification in teaching the CBI classes

The administrators noticed that the integration of language and law knowledge in the programme might call for co-operation from the content departments. However, my educational background in law relieved them from the concern about problems that might be raised in the cooperation. As an experienced EFL teacher with a diploma in law, I was regarded as qualified to teach content-related language skills. As said in a personal conversation with the Principal of WLC, "We have law lecturers to take the responsibility for teaching legal knowledge. Language skills in the legal area should be at the centre of the programme" (Translation mine).

Taking into account the programme proposal as well as my study experience in CBI, the administrators were convinced that the programme could be a good way of trialling CBI in WLC. As the final administrative decision, the CBI programme was introduced as a two-month training course. The course was open to all the teachers and students in WLC. The feature of the programme as a series of training classes also avoided time conflicts between the CBI programme and the regular subject courses in WLC. As can be seen from table 3.3, all the CBI classes were at lunch time or in the evenings.

4.5.2 Financial issues

Financial issues in the programme included students' payment for the course materials, use of teaching devices such as multi-media classroom, printers and photocopiers, etc. and the payment for the three CBI teachers.

In order to support the programme, the administrative departments decided not to charge the students any tuition fees. The free training aimed to maintain a reasonable student enrolment in the course for the research. Due to the short duration of the programme compared with regular subject classes, the students were not required to purchase any course materials. Texts and other supplementary reading materials were selected by the CBI teachers, and the college offered free printing and photocopying.

At the beginning of the programme, a multi-media classroom was used for the CBI classes since there were over a hundred students (106 in fact) enrolled in the programme. A language laboratory with computers was used at the later stage since 36 students attended the classes consistently. The CBI teachers could use all the utilities free of charge.

Most CBI teachers are paid at double rate in most universities in China. Some receive a payment which is one and a half times the payment for normal classes. The CBI teachers in the WLC programme were paid at a normal rate. However, since the CBI classes were running as extra training courses in addition to the teachers' normal workload, the two lecturers received a higher salary during the two-month CBI programme.

4.5.3 Inter-disciplinary cooperation

There was no cooperation between the language and the content departments in the history of WLC, although cooperation between the law departments was not unusual.

Being aware that the CBI programme might require cooperation from the English and the law departments, the administrators were worried that the cooperation might not be conducted successfully if it was only announced as an official requirement. Teachers would make more effort if they were willing to cooperate.

The Principal held a few meetings with the heads of the language and the law departments. The aim was to elicit the departmental understanding and support for the programme. As a result, the language teachers in WLC agreed to withhold their negative attitude towards the approach from their students. However, they could not guarantee to attend the CBI courses due to their work load. The heads of the two law departments offered me the opportunity to choose two law lecturers as the CBI team members.

4.5.4 Administrative reaction to the programme

The influence of the CBI programme caught official attention and the approach involved was regarded as a 'rehearsal of an educational reform'. Shortly after the programme, an official report on the programme was composed by the administrative office and distributed to each department in WLC, the higher authorities and other colleges in the city. Integrative teaching and inter-disciplinary cooperation were reported as the main features of the programme. Legal English as the title of the programme in the report might result from the author's confusion about the difference between CBI and ESP (English for specific purposes). However, the content of the CBI approach as a reasonably new teaching model deserved more attention than what it was given by outsiders such as news reporters.

Summary

This chapter has introduced the WLC students' needs and their language learning experience. Traditional approaches were normally used before the students entered

WLC. These approaches might have provided the students with basic language rules and skills. However, the students rarely had opportunities to practise the language in real life since English is not the language for daily communication in China as an EFL context. Inadequate practice opportunities also restricted the students' development in L2 learning strategies. Most language teachers in WLC attributed students' less advanced L2 proficiency to their low investment of time and energy investment in language learning. Other factors including motivation and language opportunities were rarely taken into consideration in English language teaching in WLC.

Many teachers from the content and the language departments in WLC held negative attitudes towards the feasibility of CBI. However, most content teachers considered the approach as necessary in WLC. According to the content teachers, if students had to learn English, they needed to learn some useful English that might benefit their future career. In contrast to the content teachers, teachers from the language department of WLC insisted that CBI was neither necessary nor feasible due to their concern about students' poor language background. However, their negative attitude might also be related to their perception of CBI as a challenge. For many language teachers in WLC, applying the CBI approach means extra workload resulted from specific training in the content area or close co-operation with the content department.

With pedagogical and academic support from the content departments, the CBI programme in WLC received positive feedback from the students, team teachers and the administrative department. The content teachers' reaction to the programme is largely influenced by their involvement in the CBI classes. Many teachers also changed their attitude to CBI after the WLC programme. In a sense, teachers can only appreciate the practicality of an approach by practising it.

Conclusion

It is the aim of this final chapter to summarize the research findings drawn from the CBI programme in WLC. These findings are presented as answers to the six research questions. New questions that have been raised from the programme are also discussed in this chapter. Some factors may limit the generalizability of the findings. These factors include student numbers (i.e. 36 law students participated consistently in the programme), programme duration (i.e. the programme ran as a two-month course) and the setting (i.e. the programme was conducted in WLC as a particular setting), etc. However, due to similarities between WLC and other further education colleges in China, methodologies introduced in this thesis as well as the research findings may help others to practise CBI in similar settings.

The effectiveness of CBI in further education in China: research findings

Six questions were raised at the beginning of the thesis:

1. Is CBI an appropriate methodology for WLC as a further education college and, by extension, for other specialist further education colleges in China?

2. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' EFL proficiency?

3. How and how much do CBI courses contribute to WLC students' content mastery?

4. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' cognitive skills?

5. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from content teachers in WLC?

6. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from other language teachers in WLC?

Answers to questions two to six will be introduced before those to question one. This is because research findings from these five questions (i.e. questions two to six) contribute to evaluating the appropriateness of CBI for further education in China as the leading question of my research project.

CBI develops students' language skills through increased motivation, focused language learning and enhanced opportunities

Some researchers (e.g. Hu, 2002) argue that CBI should be restricted to a small number of elite schools and universities. The students' limited English language proficiency is the major concern which might limit the practice of CBI in further education college settings. This concern is echoed by teacher questionnaires, interviews and personal communications before the CBI programme in WLC. Many language teachers believe that college students are too lazy and their language proficiency is too poor to learn through CBI. However, there is little evidence to prove that language skills introduced in CBI are more difficult than those introduced in traditional language classes. Moreover, there is a difference between 'being lazy' and 'not being motivated'. Outcomes of the CBI programme in WLC prove that college students are able to develop their language skills in CBI classes.

College students are often regarded as lazy by teachers and even by themselves. According to the pre-programme student questionnaire, most WLC students spent less than an hour per week in learning English outside of classes. During the CBI programme, however, they spent nearly four hours per week in language-related activities after class. As revealed by the end-of-programme questionnaire, students are motivated by the CBI approach and by the teachers involved in the programme.

Once motivated, students are willing to make the effort to learn the language. According to their responses to the end-of-programme questionnaire and communication during the programme, the students attended the CBI classes with the

feeling of 'being required to learn' at the beginning, 'wanting to learn' at the middle stage of the programme and 'enjoying the learning' at the final stage of the programme. The CBI procedures in WLC (see tables 3.4, 3.6 and 3.7) aim to enhance student' practice opportunities. However, it is the involvement of content information in the CBI classes that encourages students to take the opportunities and participate in various activities, although there was a stage when some students had to be pushed to take up the opportunities.

According to the end-of-programme questionnaires, all the programme students believe that they have made progress in law-related EFL skills while over half of them think that their language skills for general communication have also been developed during the programme. As analyzed in chapter four, students' development in the four basic language skills followed a pattern from linguistic-oriented reading, writing, speaking and listening to content-oriented (see tables 4.12, 4.13 and 4.14).

As shown by the course materials and teaching plans (see Appendix VII for example), content-related language skills introduced in CBI classes are not necessarily more difficult than those in traditional language classes. Students' performance in the later stages of the programme also helps to prove that content-area language skills are more easily practised and therefore effectively acquired due to the involvement of the content knowledge that they are concurrently studying. It seems that CBI is effective in developing content-related language skills, which are desirable for college students who are learning the knowledge in a particular field.

CBI helps students' content development through increased learning and practice opportunities

As mentioned previously, the CBI programme in WLC was an extra course, running concurrently with the L1 law classes. The aim was to provide some new content information and reinforce the old knowledge introduced in L1 classes. Although the

content information was introduced by the teachers through both L1 and L2 (see Appendix VIII for example), the students were encouraged to present and discuss the information in L2. Since the presentations and discussions took place in the form of language activities, the students, according to their response to the end-of-programme questionnaire, were not embarrassed with some of their content mistakes. This provided the opportunity for the CBI teachers to correct the mistakes and clarify the related conceptual issues.

The particular teaching mode in the programme (e.g. student presentation and student-led discussion) facilitated students' autonomy in the content study. The students were encouraged to search other sources for content information so as to obtain a broader access to content knowledge. This mode can also be adopted in students' L1 content classes. However, it was the aim of the CBI programme in WLC to help students find the content information and solve the content-related problems in L2.

CBI facilitates students' development in cognitive skills and learning strategies

Integrating content information with language learning not only helps students' content development but also leads to their cognitive maturity. WLC students' learning experience indicates that language skills can only be developed when they are introduced by teachers and practised by students. Before the CBI programme, according to their representative, most WLC students did not know what learning strategies were and how they functioned to improve learning efficiency. As commented on by the teachers and students in the programme, the CBI classes provided students with opportunities to decide on what to learn and how to learn it effectively. During this process, the students practised and established their own learning strategies.

Students' cognitive progress in the CBI programme shows that when students start

learning strategically, they gain independence and their learning becomes more personal. The students' role therefore changes from being passive receivers (i.e. learn what is taught or given) to active searchers (learn what they want to know). At the end of the CBI programme, students showed concern about the success of the research project. This indicates that the position of the students is not opposed to that of the teachers any more. Instead, they stand on the same side of education with their teachers, helping the teachers to know what they already know and what they still want to know. In this sense, both teachers and students are working for the same purposes.

Content teachers' reaction to CBI

According to the pre-programme teacher questionnaire (see Appendix III), most content teachers consider CBI as necessary in WLC since they believe that the students need to develop law-related language skills. They think that if the students have to learn English as a foreign language, they need to learn some useful skills in the language. However, the students' background is understandably one of their major concerns and teacher development is another. According to many content teachers, even if the students can learn through the CBI approach, can the teachers teach? There is only one way to find out the answer.

Many content teachers attended the CBI classes in WLC and were surprised to see 'the enormous efforts' the students made during the programme. It seems that the strength of CBI lies not in the approach itself but in the motivation and effort it inspired from the students. However, the teachers may not understand the demands that CBI makes on them until they fully participate in the programme. Most WLC teachers were not confident about their qualification for teaching the CBI classes because they were not experts in both the language and the content field.

Teaching CBI classes is by no means an effortless job. Due to the tight course

schedule, every teacher in the CBI team had a heavy workload. However, according to the programme reports (see Appendix XII), the two law lecturers experienced a sense of achievement and self-development during the programme. As indicated by the case study in WLC, team-teaching is an effective way of introducing a successful CBI programme in college settings where neither the content nor the language teachers are experts in the other field. The practice of CBI in these settings is challenging but feasible even at the beginning stage.

By participating in a CBI programme, the content teachers are able to understand their roles in the CBI classes and appreciate the change/adjustment of these roles. The teachers' fulfilment of these roles is essential in order to establish CBI procedures that are suitable for a particular student group in a particular setting. It is also in this process that the content teachers came to appreciate better the CBI approach and realize that it is not an abstract concept but a pedagogical framework that can be applied in different forms.

Language teachers' reaction to CBI

Similar to the content teachers' reaction, language teachers in WLC were concerned about the students' background abilities. According to interviews and communications with these teachers, CBI might meet the students' needs but be out of their reach. In their original words, it was not possible for WLC students to understand the lowest level of legal knowledge delivered in English.

Students' development during the programme proved that an appropriate form of CBI is within students' reach. Teachers should not underestimate their students' potential before opportunities are given to them and outcomes are analyzed in pedagogical practice.

Another concern of the language teachers was about their own capabilities in

teaching the CBI course. This was based on their misunderstanding of CBI rather than their personal experience of learning or teaching through the approach. According to these teachers, CBI was as an approach where the target language was used as the only medium to teach the content course. Not feeling confident about their abilities to take the responsibility for 'L2 content teaching', the language teachers did not participate in the CBI programme.

Although the language teachers missed the opportunity to practice CBI in WLC, their attitude towards the approach was changed by programme students' language development. Since the new semester after the CBI programme, Business English has been taught by language teachers in WLC. These courses bear more characteristics of ESP; however, they can be seen as a pedagogical tendency from GPE to CBI.

The WLC language teachers' reactions to CBI indicate that a fruitful programme of CBI, as well as that of any other new approaches, depends very much on the teachers' awareness of the students' needs and requires them to keep an open mind to the new approaches. A full understanding of an approach including CBI can only be obtained through the teachers' applying and adjusting it in their pedagogical practice.

CBI is an appropriate methodology since it meets the needs of college students

Students' development and teachers' reactions during the CBI programme help to answer the leading research question: Is CBI an appropriate methodology for WLC and other further education colleges in China?

By the time they finish junior secondary education, college students in China have at least three years of experience in English language learning. Most of them, if not all, have learned the language through traditional approaches. As seen from students' responses to the pre-programme questionnaire, the traditional language classes seem

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effective in introducing linguistic rules but ineffective in providing ample opportunities for students to practise these rules. According to the pre-programme questionnaires, most WLC students had lost interest in learning English as a foreign language and were not motivated to participate in language activities. They could hardly find opportunities to practise in real life what they were taught in the language classes.

CBI is appropriate for college education in China because it meets college students' needs in language learning. English is a compulsory course in Chinese further education. However, unlike students at senior secondary schools or universities, college students do not have to take the national English test (NET) for their graduation certificates. Meanwhile, students at WLC and other colleges in China learn a subject which is closely related to their future career (e.g. law as the major subject of students at WLC). By integrating language learning with students' subject study, CBI classes enhance students' motivation in language learning and increase their practice opportunities. As seen from the pre-programme student questionnaire, 96 per cent of students said that they would be more deeply and actively engaged in language classes if some legal knowledge and information were introduced. Many of them said that they would feel less embarrassed with content mistakes they made in language classes.

CBI also helps college students' academic success and meets their professional needs. As shown in the WLC-specific CBI procedures (table 3.7), teaching plans (e.g. Appendix VII) and content teachers' programme reports (see Appendix XII), the CBI classes in WLC are neither English-medium content teaching nor legal English courses. These classes provided opportunities for students to get access to new content information and to clarify conceptual issues introduced in L1 content courses. Since the CBI classes in WLC involved a selection of content units instead of the content curriculum as a whole, more time and energy were spent on introducing and practising learning strategies.

Questions and implications for future research

It can be seen from the case study of CBI in WLC that CBI is an appropriate approach for college education in China. It links English language teaching to students' content learning and therefore meets their language, academic and professional needs. The CBI approach also seems effective since the outcomes echo most advantages of CBI introduced in the first chapter of the thesis: It enhances students' motivation, meets learners' needs and increases practice opportunities. However, as mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, some factors may limit the generalizability of the findings from the case study. The case study also raises three new questions for future research and practice in CBI.

How effective is CBI in a long-term course?

Although106 students registered for the CBI programme in WLC, only 36 attended the two-month course consistently. Most of them are good students: they are either interested in both the language and the content or highly self-motivated. The CBI course received a high attendance rate from the 36 programme students. However, it is yet to know how much more effort will be needed in order to maintain students' motivation and the effectiveness of CBI if it runs as a long-term (over five months) regular course.

How to make CBI meet teachers' needs?

The case study in WLC proved that one of the advantages of CBI is that it meets the learners' needs. However, teachers also need to be motivated to participate in and contribute to a CBI programme. An unanswered question in the programme is whether CBI meets the teachers' needs.

As seen from the case study in WLC, the effectiveness of the CBI course is closely related to the co-operation from the two law lecturers. They joined the programme with positive attitudes towards the approach and a good personal relationship with me as the course co-ordinator. They also established an in-depth understanding of the approach by participating in the programme. However, are a good personal relationship and/or positive attitude the only factors that motivate the content teachers to join the programme?

The language teachers in WLC did not take part in the programme. They viewed CBI as a full English-medium content teaching approach and may therefore have seen it as a challenge or threat. Apart from a clear understanding of CBI, close analysis of the teachers' needs may help to motivate teachers to participate in a CBI programme. Only by doing so can they develop a full understanding of the approach.

What factors compose successful team-teaching?

Closely linked to the second question, the research showed that team-teaching is an effective method in a successful CBI programme. It requires the involvement of both content and language teachers. However, a new question has been raised from the CBI case study in WLC: What composes successful team-teaching?

In the CBI programme in WLC, both the language and the content teachers as members of the CBI team reached a better understanding of the knowledge and teaching skills in the other field. However, according to the law lectures' programme reports, the process of team-teaching itself was also stressful.

It may be sensible to suggest that CBI teachers adopt team-teaching as the beginning stage of a CBI programme or use it as a way of teacher preparation. This may provide teachers with an extra opportunity to establish a better understanding of the knowledge in the other field and appreciate other teachers' pedagogical experiences.

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Since every teacher has their own personality and attracts students in different ways, the final purpose of team-teaching should be freeing teachers from the team and developing the teachers' pedagogical independence and individualism. Components of successful team-teaching and its effectiveness should be subject to future research and practice.

This research project has shown that CBI is an appropriate approach for further education in China. Although practising CBI in different Chinese colleges may encounter various problems and questions, the approach itself is well worth exploring in China and other EFL and ESL contexts.

Appendix I

Proposal for the CBI programme in WLC

Theme of my research:

The research focuses on a new approach to EFL teaching, in which legal information is used as the content. The rationale is that WLC students may be better motivated to learn English and more actively engaged in language activities when the language introduced in the classes is relate to their subject study and future work. It is the aim of the research and the related CBI course to develop WLC students' English language proficiency and mastery of law.

Duration of the course:

Seven weeks with six hours of teaching and/or supervision per day.

Research questions concerned:

7. Is CBI an appropriate methodology for WLC as a further education college? And, by extension for other specialist further education/colleges in China?
8. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' EFL proficiency?
9. How and how much do CBI courses contribute to WLC students' content mastery?
10. How effective is CBI in developing WLC students' cognitive skills?
11. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from other language teachers in WLC?
12. What kind of reaction does a CBI programme elicit from content teachers in WLC?

Requirement to students:

1. A stable number of student participants with full attendance to the course
2. A basic understanding about law and English
3. Appreciation of constructive educational environment

Requirement to teachers:

1. Appreciation of team spirit.
2. Appreciation of fairly-shared workload during the course and the research outcome after the course

Core course materials:

1. *Legal English* (1997) published by Publishing House of Law.
2. *English for the Legal Profession* (1999) published by Fudan University Press.

Appendix II

Poster of the CBI programme

A two-month legal English programme will be presented by Ms Du Jianying, a former English lecturer from WLC and PhD student in Applied Linguistics from the University of Southampton, and two law lecturers from WLC. The programme aims to introduce law-related English language skills and a certain amount of legal information. Please refer to the time table as follows for course schedules.

Monday	3.50pm---5.30pm	Room 608	Supervision
Tuesday	7.00pm---9.00pm	Room 608	Teaching
Wednesday	12.30pm---1.50pm	Room 608	Supervision
Thursday	2.00pm---3.40pm	Room 608	Teaching
Friday	12.30pm---1.50pm	Room 608	Supervision

All welcome!

Deadline for registration: 15th, January, 2006
Place for registration: WLC Student Union
Starting date: 17th, January, 2006

Appendix III

Interviews with content lecturers from Chinese universities

1. Q: What subject are you teaching in the university of _____ (name of the university)
   A: _____.

2. Q: How many years have you been teaching?
   A: _____ years.

3. Q: How many years have you been teaching in this university?
   A: _____ years.

4. Q: Is your subject instruction in English a compulsory requirement of the university?
   A: _____.

5. Q: Where and when did you achieve your academic degree?
   A: At the University of _____ in the year _____ with the degree of _____.

6. Q: When and where did you receive your English language education?
   A: At the University of _____ in the year _____ with the degree of _____.

7. Have you received any training in teaching in English? If yes, specify.

8. Please describe the use of English language in your classrooms from the aspect of teaching. For example, the proportion of English as a medium of content instruction, the constitution of teaching material, etc.

9. Please specify the extent to which your students use English in their subject matter study. For example, the role of English in classroom discussion, homework, content reading comprehension, dissertation, etc.

10. Do you consult language faculty for any language problems met by you or your students? If so, how?

11. How do you assess the students' L2 output including assignments and dissertations? Is content mastery the sole standard of marking?

12. Please specify students' reaction to this content-language integrated form of teaching.

13. Please provide some comment on content instruction in English as the medium according to your own experience.

Appendix IV

Pre-programme Questionnaire for WLC students

Name _____   Sex _____   Age _____   Date_____

Instruction: There are a total of 35 questions in this questionnaire. Most of the questions are to be answered with Yes or No. Please fill in the blanks or **circle** the letters of your answers. Your honest answers will be greatly appreciated.

Confidentiality: Your real name is preferable only for the sake of return rate of this questionnaire. However, you can use a pseudonym or nickname if you feel more comfortable with it.

1. How long have you been studying English as a formal school subject?
   I have been studying it for _____ years.

2. At what age did you start learning English language (formally or informally)?
   I started when I was _____.

3. Were you interested in English when you started learning it?
   Yes   No

4. Has your interest in English increased or decreased during your studies?
   A. Increased   B. Decreased   C. Remained the same

5. English is an international language. Does this make it important for you to learn it?
   Yes   No

6. English provides access to academic study and the professions. Would you like to learn everyday English or the language that will be useful to you in your future profession?
   A. Everyday English   B. English for my future profession

7. Would you still enrol in the English course if it was not a compulsory subject?
   Yes   No

8. Which of the following describes your situation best? Please choose **ONE**

answer.
  A. I hope to speak very fluent English for my daily interpersonal conversations
  B. I hope that I could acquire English language knowledge and skills sufficient for my career in law
  C. A good career in law is enough for me; so I do not need English
  D. My English language proficiency will be built up more easily and naturally if I study law in an English-speaking country.

9. Do you agree with the saying that 'I did not pass the English exams because I love my own country'?
  Yes   No

10. Has an unsatisfactory mark in your English exam ever bothered you?
  Yes   No

11. Did you choose law as your major subject because your parents wanted you to do so?

12 Did you choose to study law because you think it is interesting?
  Yes   No

13 Do you believe that your present study in law will provide you a good chance of making money?
  Yes   No

14. Do you think that your study in law will lead to a reasonably high social status?
  Yes   No

15. Above all, do you think studying in law is the right choice for you?
  Yes   No

16. Do you think the English language knowledge you are currently acquiring benefits your daily life?
  Yes   No

17. If your answer to the previous question is 'Yes', please specify up to 3 examples.
  A. _____
  B. _____
  C. _____

18. Will you be more interested in the English course if some legal knowledge and information are introduced in English classes?
  Yes   No

19. Will you be more involved in law courses if you know some legal English?

Yes   No

20. Do you think English teachers in law colleges should possess some knowledge of law?

Yes   No

21. Will you be disappointed if your English teacher does not possess as much legal knowledge as you do?

Yes   No

22. What kind of language teachers impress you most? Please choose **ONE** answer.

A.   teachers with very proficient language knowledge and basic legal knowledge

B.   teachers with very good legal knowledge and basic language knowledge

23. Do you fully take the chance of participation in language activities when you are confident in the language and the topic concerned?

Yes   No

24. Do you participate in classroom activities when there is combined challenge in language and content?

Yes   No

25. Do you participate in classroom activities when you are not very sure about the content topics?

Yes   No

26. Do you participate in classroom activities when you are interested in the topic but not very confident about your current English language knowledge?

Yes   No

27. Do you ask for help when you do not feel competent in taking part in language activities before the answers are given by the instructors?

Yes   No

28. How much time do you spend on English language learning per week after class?

A. less than 1 hour   B. 1 - 5 hours

C. 5 – 10 hours   D. over 10 hours

29. Which of the following factors do you think are more important in English language learning? Rank the given items with numbers 1 to 4, with 1 standing for the most important and 4 the least.

A. Vocabulary accumulation   B. Grammar learning

C. Frequent practice   D. Exposure to authentic use

30. What are you most likely to do when you encounter difficulties in English language learning? Choose **ONE** answer only
    A. ask good students
    B. ask peers sitting around you
C. ask teachers
D. use tools in hand, e.g. dictionaries, course books, grammar books, etc.
    E. use other strategies not mentioned
    F. leave it

31. How much do the following interest you in language classes? Rank in order with numbers 1 to 4, with 1 standing for the most interesting and 4 the least.
    a. Audio-visual materials, including classic English language films
    b. Text-book based language teaching
    c. Group language activities, including discussion, problem solving, games, etc.
    d. Law-oriented learning and teaching activities

32. Please give a brief comment on how you feel when you are learning English

33. Please give a brief comment on your present English language proficiency.

34. Please give brief comment on the English language teaching in this college

35. Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire

Appendix V

Questionnaires for content teachers from WLC

1. How many years have you been teaching in Law?
   _____ years.

2. When and where did you receive your highest degree in Law?
   I received it at the University of _____ in the year of _____
   with the degree of _____.

3. How important do you think English is in students' law study in general? Choose
   ONE answer and circle.
   A. very important   B. important   C. not important   D. irrelevant.

4. Would you explicitly encourage your students to study English?
   A. Yes   B. No

5. Do you think English classes in this college should be integrated with law
   instruction?
   A. Yes   B. No   C. Unsure

6. Do you think the integration is possible in this college?
   A. Yes   B. No   C. Unsure

7. Please rank the order of the importance of the following factors in
   language-content integrated instruction, with 1 standing for the most important
   one and 4 the least.
   A. the administrative support
   B. the language teachers' content competence
   C. students' anxiety
   D. cooperation between language and content teachers and faculties

8. How much are you willing to help language teachers with their content
   competence?
   A. as much as I can   B. as much as they need   C. not at all

9. How much would you like to get help from the language teachers in this college
   with your legal English?
   A. very much   B. not much   C. not at all

10. Do you think my attempt to integrate language and law instruction will be effective?

    A. yes   B. no   C. unsure

11. Please give your advice and suggestions for my forthcoming field work.

Appendix VI

Interviews with language instructors in the universities

1. Q: What is the name of the English course book are you using in the university of _____ (name of the university)
    A: _____ .

2. Q: How many years have you been teaching English?
    A: _____ years.

3. Q: How many years have you been teaching English in this university?
    A: _____ years.

4. Q: Is English a compulsory course for your students in this university?
    A: _____ .

5. Q: Where and when did you receive your degree in English language education?
    A: At the University of _____ in the year _____ with the degree of _____ .

6. Q: Have you received any tertiary education in the subject your students are currently learning? If so, specify.
    A: No. / Yes. I did at the University of _____ in the year _____ with the degree of _____ .

7. Q: Please specify the purpose of the English course that you are teaching, relating to students' needs in reality.
    A: It is GPE/ESP. The students' academic needs are strongly/weakly concerned, and their language needs carry more/less weight. (The <u>interviewer</u> ticks the answer based on the interviewee's explanation).

8. On the basis of your experiences as a language learner and then teacher, please specify the salient difficulties faced by Chinese students in English language learning.

9. How do you help the students in English language learning in and outside of the language classes, for example, your teaching techniques, use of teaching resources and facilities, advice and suggestions in language learning, etc.?

10. Do you think English language teaching will be more interesting and useful for the students if some subject matter information is introduced? Why do you (or do

you not) think so?

11. Would you like to share your language expertise with lecturers from the content departments? Please explain the reason.

12. Would you like to develop your content knowledge? Please explain why or why not.

13. Please specify the main channels for you to acquire content-related information if the answer to the previous question is YES.

14. What do you think worries you most if language teaching is required to be integrated with content teaching?

Appendix VII

Overview of the CBI programme at WLC

Unit One: General introduction: Definition, classification & sources
1. Language teacher as the main instructor introduces definition, classification and sources of law in simplified English.
2. Language teacher as the main instructor introduces key legal words involved in the core text.
3. Based on their own studying and understanding of the core text, students discuss in groups about the definition and classification of law. They are also required to express their understanding of the statement that 'law is both an instrument of change and a result of changes'.
4. Content teachers help students to develop extra understanding of the unit as well as related issues through course summary and informal in-class interaction with the students.

Unit Two: Lawyers
1. Supported by a joint lesson plan, language teacher as the main instructor introduces different types of lawyers and their roles in different legal systems.
2. Language teacher guides the students to study the core text.
3. Students are required to express their own understanding of the roles that lawyers play in human society in general and in the Chinese legal system in specific.

Unit Three: Contract formation and classification
1. Students present any relevant information about contracts they have collected before the class.
2. Language teacher guide the students to study the core text. The aim is to make sure students have good command of the language and content knowledge introduced in the core text.
3. Students are required to develop a good understanding of formation, classification and validity of a contract. A sample case is given to facilitate and evaluate students' understanding.

Unit Four: Civil litigation
1. Language teacher as the main instructor introduces civil rights law and civil litigation in the United States. The introduction is conducted in Chinese. Some key content words are translated into English.
2. Students are required to develop a good amount of vocabulary used in civil litigation. They also need to be able to compare the characteristics and procedures of civil litigation in the Chinese and the American legal systems.

Appendix VIII

Core text, lesson plan, teacher and students diary entries for Unit One

Core Text Shared by Teachers and Students

UNIT ONE   GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Definition, Classification & Sources

Text

What is law? Though we use the word "law" in everyday conversation, we use it in so many ways that there is no simple answer to the question. [1]

The definition of law depends on how we look at its purposes or functions. [2]

A basic purpose of law in our society is to maintain order and to resolve disputes. In this connection we must bear in mind that law is not simply a set of rules of conduct. It is also the means to impose responsibility and to enforce social justice. [3]

Law has also been defined as a command from a superior to an inferior. The tax law fits in well with this concept of law. [4]

Law is also a method of social control. The law brings about changes in our society and society brings about changes in the law. In this sense law is both an instrument of change and a result of changes. [5]

Laws can be classified in many ways too. Laws are sometimes referred to as substantive or procedural. [6] Substantive law defines rights, and procedural law establishes the procedures by which rights are protected and enforced. [7]

Law is also frequently classified into areas of public and private law. Public law includes laws that affect the public generally. It can be further divided into constitutional law, administrative law and criminal law. Private law deals with the relationships between individuals in an organized society. It covers contracts, torts and property, each of which can be subdivided into several subjects.

The phrase sources of law is used here to describe methods and procedures by which law is created and developed. American law comes from four basic sources: constitutions, legislation, judicial decisions, and administrative rules and regulations.

Judicial decisions as part of law is a unique characteristic of American law. This concept of decided cases as a source of law is often referred to as the common law system, which must be contrasted with the civil law system developed in continental Europe. [8] The

civil law countries have codified their law so that the main source of law in those countries is to be found in the statutes rather than in the cases.[9] Under the common law system, statutes as well as cases are sources of law.

Words & Expressions

definition [ˌdefiˈniʃən]	n.	定义
function [ˈfʌŋkʃən]	n.	功能
resolve [riˈzɔlv]	vt.	解决
dispute [disˈpjuːt]	n.	纠纷，争端
to resolve a dispute		解决争端
connection [kəˈnekʃən]	n.	联系
in this connection		说到这里，有关这点
conduct [ˈkɔndəkt]	n.	行为
rules of conduct		行为规则
impose [imˈpəuz]	vt.	强加
enforce [inˈfɔːs]	vt.	实施，执行，力促
justice [ˈdʒʌstis]	n.	正义，司法
define [diˈfain]	vt.	给……下定义，界定
to be defined as		被界定为……，定义是
command [kəˈmɑːnd]	n.	命令
superior [sjuːˈpiəriə]	n.	上级
inferior [inˈfiəriə]	n.	下级
to fit in with		符合
concept [ˈkɔnsept]	n.	概念
to bring about		造成
instrument [ˈinstrumənt]	n.	工具
classify [ˈklæsifai]	vt.	把……分类
refer [riˈfəː]	vt.	指称
to be referred to as		被称为……，被说成是……
substantive [ˈsʌbstəntiv]	adj.	实体的
procedure [prəˈsiːdʒə]	n.	程序
procedural [prəˈsiːdʒərəl]	adj.	程序的
establish [isˈtæbliʃ]	vt.	确立
public law		公法
private law		私法
divide [diˈvaid]	vt.	分
constitutional [kɔnstiˈtjuːʃənəl]	a.	宪法的
administrative [ədˈministrətiv]		行政的

criminal ['kriminəl]	刑事的
cover ['kʌvə] *vt.*	覆盖,包括
contract ['kɔntrækt] *n.*	合同
tort [tɔːt] *n.*	侵权
property ['prɔpəti] *n.*	财产
subdivide ['sʌbdi'vaid] *vt.*	再分
to be divided/subdivided into	被分(再分)成
legislation [ˌledʒis'leiʃən] *n.*	立法
judicial [dʒuː'diʃəl] *adj.*	司法的
regulation [ˌregju'leiʃən] *n.*	法规,规则
unique [juː'niːk] *adj.*	特殊的,独特的
characteristic [ˌkæriktə'ristik] *n.*	性质,特征
common law (system)	普通法(系)
civil law (system)	大陆法(系)
continental Europe	大陆欧洲(不包括英国和爱尔兰)
codify ['kɔdifai] *vt.*	编纂
statute ['stætjuːt] *n.*	(成文的)法规

Notes

1. … we use it in so many ways that there is no simple answer to the question.
   它的用法如此之多,使这个问题没有简单的答案。

2. The definition of law depends on how we look at its purposes or functions.
   法律的定义取决于我们如何看它的目的或功能。

3. In this connection we must bear in mind that law is not simply a set of rules of conduct. It is also the means to impose responsibility and to enforce social justice.
   说到这里我们必须记住,法律不单是一套行为规则,它也是明确责任和力促社会正义的手段。

4. The tax law fits in well with this concept of law.
   税法很符合这种对法律的认识。

5. In this sense law is both an instrument of change and a result of changes.
   从这意义上说,法律既是变化的工具又是变化的结果。

6. Laws are sometimes referred to as substantive or procedural.
   有时候法律被称作实体的或程序的。

7. Substantive law defines rights, and procedural law establishes the procedures by which rights are protected and enforced.
   实体法界定权利,程序法则确立保护权利并使其生效的程序。

8. This concept of decided cases as a source of law is often referred to as the common law system, which must be contrasted with the civil law system developed in continental

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Europe.

把已判决的案例作为法的一个渊源，这种概念常被称为普遍法系，它有别于大陆欧洲的大陆法系。

9. The civil law countries have codified their law so that the main source of law in those countries is to be found in the statutes rather than in the cases.

大陆法系国家把它们的法律编成了法典，因此这些国家的法的渊源在成文的法规里而不在案例里。

Word Study

1. so... that... 如此……以致于

He walked so fast that no one could follow him.

2. to depend on 取决于

We have done everything we can for the trip. Now its success depends on the weather.

"Is teaching a respectable profession?"

"That depends on how you look at it."

3. in this connection: when we are mentioning this，说到这里，提起这点

In this connection a word of caution must be added.

4. to bear in mind: to remember 记住

Bear me in mind if you want to go shopping. I want you to give me a ride any time you go downtown.

She did not make a good job of it. But bear in mind that she was ill at that time.

5. to fit in (well) with 符合

I will try to fit my holidays in with yours so that we can go to Beijing together.

Does my idea fit in well with your plan?

6. in this sense 在这个意义上

Lawyers help resolve disputes. In this sense lawyers are peace-makers.

7. to refer to ... as 把……称作

In his speech he referred to his running mate (竞选伙伴) as an up-and-coming politician.

He is often referred to as the founder of this university.

8. to classify...into 把……分成……（类别）

Books are classified according to subject area.

Workers are often classified into two types: white collar and blue collar.

9. to divide (subdivide)...into 把……分（再分）成

The travellers should be divided into two teams. The first team starts out on Monday and the second on Tuesday. Each team can then be subdivided into groups of three,

with one group taking one bedroom.

10. contrast with 与……形成对比,不同于……

Chinese legal traditions contrast sharply with Western legal traditions.

Exercises

I. Tell whether each of the following statements is true or false:

1. There are many ways to define law, but no single definition is completely satisfactory.

2. All people agree that the purpose of law is to achieve social justice.

3. Law brings about changes in society, so it is an instrument of change.

4. Tax law can be seen as a command from the ruling class to the ruled.

5. Judicial decisions are also an important source of law in France and Germany.

6. Private laws are mostly statutes.

7. Laws can be classified according to their sources.

8. Common law countries have only case law.

9. Judicial decisions are an important part in the body of American law.

10. Constitutions are public law.

II. Answer the following questions:

1. What are the purposes or functions of law?

2. Are laws just a set of rules of conduct? Why or why not?

3. What is substantive law?

4. What is procedural law?

5. What is public law?

6. What is private law?

7. Give the names of laws that are defined according to their sources.

8. Name one unique feature of the American legal system.

9. What is a common law country?

10. What is a civil law country? Name as many civil law countries as you can.

11. Classify and describe the following laws in as many ways as you can:

contracts, torts, property, criminal law, constitutions, criminal procedure, civil procedure, legislation, administrative law, case law

III. Fill in the following blanks with proper words:

1. The word law is used in so many ways _____ a simple _____ is almost impossible.

2. Some people think that the basic purpose of law is to _____ order and to resolve

3. Without the means to _____ responsibililty and to _____ social justice, we can not have order.

4. The tax law is a good example of the concept of law as a _____ from the superior to the _____.

5. We must remember that as a method of social control law is an _____ of change as well as a _____ of change.

6. Substantive laws _____ rights while procedural laws establish procedures by which rights are _____ and enforced.

7. American law comes from four main sources: constitutions, _____, _____ decisions and _____ rules and regulations.

8. In the civil law countries law is _____. This means that the main source of law is _____ rather than decided cases.

9. Public laws _____ the public generally, while _____ laws deal _____ the relationships between individuals or private parties.

IV. Cloze

Law can be defined according to _____ (1) functions. If we see law as a _____ (2) by which we maintain social _____ (3) and resolve disputes, then law is not only _____ (4) of conduct but also means to _____ (5) liability and to enforce social _____ (6). If we see law as a method _____ (7) social control, then law is an _____ (8) of change as well as a result of _____ (9). Law is also seen as the _____ (10) from the ruling class to the ruled. Although there are many _____ (11) of law, you must bear in _____ (12) that no single definition _____ (13) completely satisfactory and no definition fits in _____ (14) all laws.

Laws can also be classified in different _____ (15). They can be divided into _____ (16) and procedural laws, public and _____ (17) laws, statutory and case laws. Laws _____ (18) also be classified according to their sources. By this way of _____ (19) there are constitutions, legislation, judicial decisions and administrative rules and _____ (20).

V. Translation

1. English to Chinese

In the United States, common law has been the predominant influence. Since most of the colonists were of English origin, they naturally followed the laws and customs of their mother country. But in Louisiana, and to some extent Texas and California, the civil law has influenced the legal systems, because these states were founded by the French and Spanish. However, much of the law in every state of the United States is statutory, and statutes are becoming increasingly impor-

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tant. Case law, or common law, remains an important source of law because of the extreme difficulty in reducing all law to writing in advance of an issue being raised.

2. Chinese to English

1)法律不仅是一套行为规则,也是一种明确责任并促进社会正义的手段。

2)税法很符合法律是上级对下级的命令这一定义。

3)一般来说公法影响到公众,私法则处理有秩序的社会中个人间的关系。

4)可以根据法律的渊源把法律分成宪法,国会立法,司法判决和行政法规。

5)在美国,已经判决的案子也是法的一个渊源,这与大陆欧洲不同。后者法律的主要渊源是成文法条。

6)美国法律可分成为成文法和判例法两类。

Appendix VIII-2

Lesson plan for Unit One

UNIT ONE   GENERAL INTRODUCTION
Definition, Classification & Sources

Step 1. Oral presentations given by 2 students individually (3 to 5 minutes)

The presentation should be based on pre-class reading of the text in the lesson. However, since this is the first lesson, students can choose anything that interests them as the topics of their presentation. The rationale behind it is that the students might be discouraged by the difficulty of the content knowledge and the unfamiliarity with English as a foreign language.

The aim of the oral presentation, which is also called duty report, is to foster students' abilities in reading and speaking. Content knowledge and cognitive skills are addressed to support students' performance.

Step 2. Group work (25 minutes)

Students are grouped to discuss linguistic, content, and cognitive knowledge contained in the text. Very different from linguistic knowledge taught in GPE classes, word study carries more weight than grammar and sentence structure in this legal text. Simple present is the only tense in the reading material, and compound sentences and clauses are rarely used. Students are required to study and practise the use of the following phrases, which help students in giving definitions, drawing categories, and making comparisons, etc.

So ... that..., to depend on, in this connection, to bear in mind, to fit in (well) with, in this sense, to refer to... as, to classify ... into, to divide (subdivide) ... into, and *contrast with.*

In terms of content knowledge, students are supposed to gather information in the various *definitions* and *classifications* of law, as well as the *sources* of each classification. *Exercises I & II* on page 5 of the text book are to be distributed to study groups. To maintain satisfactory performance on the content topics, students have to make the best use of language knowledge listed above, and recall content knowledge in the text of CBI classes as well as that in subject matter classrooms.

Being assisted by group work, students' cognitive abilities are also developed. These abilities are mainly in defining, summarizing, exemplifying, comparing, etc. Group work also provides opportunities for students to gain learning strategies from

peers and modify their own strategies.

A very important factor in group work is teacher's clarifying the tasks in language and content study. A presentation is given by representative of a group, summarizing language and content items to be acquired.

Step 3. Teacher-student interaction (10 minutes)

This is the time for the teacher to check students' mastery in language and content by asking relevant questions. Meanwhile, students also have the chance to ask the teacher about unsolved language and content problems. Learning strategies can be demonstrated explicitly according to students' situation.

Step 4. Homework

Homework is issued after each class. At the beginning of the classes, students are normally required to complete sentence translations in Exercise V. Written assignments based on legal case reading will be accomplished with the development of the CBI programme.

Teacher's dairy entries for Unit One

Day 1

It is the first time that students accept whole content-based instruction in class. The class is from 7pm till 9.30pm. Considering the unfamiliarity of the content and language to the students, procedures and methods used in traditional language classrooms are still adopted in my CBI courses. For example, teacher-led text and word reading are conducted before the content illustration and discussion. This is because students would not speak in English if they are not confident about the pronunciation.

Language point in this lesson (Definition, Classification & Sources) is, as it will be in the following lessons, special vocabulary and expressions in law. For example, *administrative, tort, property, etc* are used to name different kinds of law. Academic English point in this lesson is to give definition, make classification, and analyse the sources of law. Expressions such as *to be referred to as, be classified / divided (subdivided) into, depend on,* are frequently used. Content knowledge in this lesson is the general introduction about the definition, classification of law. Content lectures play a significant role in reinforcing the background content knowledge students have learned before, and in clarifying some content concepts.

Students are grouped after the study of the text. Four topics were discussed concerning the definition, classification and sources of law, as well as the meaning of 'law is the instrument of change and the result of changes'. Although the specific vocabulary and long sentence structures add great difficulty to students' content-related discussion, they are highly motivated to make great effort in content-based language learning. A boy student offered to give a presentation after group discussion. The expression is not perfectly accurate; however, the teachers were impressed and other students were encouraged.

The language instructor gave way to content teachers at the end of this lesson. Content knowledge was concluded by content lecturers in Chinese as a summary of the theme of the English text. This provides another opportunity for language teachers to recall and broaden their information in content field. It is not difficult to imagine how helpful content-based language instruction is to content instructors in terms of law-related English. In this sense, CBI helps to establish meaningful cooperation between content and language faculties. As a result, content and language teachers can both lead CBI courses independently.

Day 3

After yesterday's class, students were required to read the text five times at least, and write a dairy on whatever they have learned from the first two lectures of my CBI teaching programme. However, only 4 students said they have read the text. Under this situation, I emphasised the importance of practice and the meaning of homework, i.e. the work that needs to be done in accordance with students' individual need rather than what they are told to do by the teacher.

To my surprise, a good number of students remembered the new words and some content knowledge they learned the previous day. Moreover, in-class discussion and answers in English are much more encouraging than the last two days. Simple conversation and teacher-student interaction occurred. Some students even came to the teacher to ask questions in English.

Teaching materials were decided upon in the team meeting after class. The time-table and teaching format have already been established and practised. However, team members agreed that teaching method, format, procedure, etc. are subject to modification in accordance with feedback from students and teachers.

Today learn English I know many new words . but I find that the new words are very difficult . I learn English four years . I like English e very much but my English is very very bad . I want improve my English . I like you teacher speak English with admiration Teacher's study way is very good . but when you read the text of lesson one . the speed is very very quicky .

Do you know ? Teacher . most of students think the text is very very hard . We have one year not study English . most of English are forget . I make efforts for test . I don't bow down before difficulties . I H know if I want to succeed — really succeed — I must study hard . I has to make up you own mind .

Very good diary, very lovely boy . I am happy to be your teacher and friend Your English is very good because I can understand this diary so well . You are good, and you will be better. Don't give up. It is not easy for you just as it is not easy for me. We need to work hard together. If I can, then you can too ! Thank you very much for you advice. I will try harder to help you . thank you !
24-2-06

Today is Tuesday. In class, I study what is law? how many kinds of laws are there in the words? Where are these laws from.

I think law is a set of rules of conduct and law is defined as a command from a superior to an inferior. It is also the means to impose responsibility and to enforce soial justise. Laws classify public law and private law. Substantive law and procedure law.

I am not give up listen to English.
Thank you! Never give up!
You can do it! You will be 进步
good Nothing is easy in this world
We need to try then we will not
regret. I'm lucky because I met you
in my class. I need you to come every day!
24-12-06

We have the legal English training course for four days. Writing here, let me think about what I have learnt.

I have learnt "what is law!" I know the law is a set of rules of conduct. _it is to maintain order and to resolve_ And I have learn _disputes_ "How many kinds of law?" I _have_ know accord to the area or tradition, the law can be classified into English - American law and continental law. According to the content, the law can be classified into substantive law and procedural law. According to the interest protected, the law can be classified into public law and private law. The public law protects national interest, the private law protects personal interest. According to the source, the law can be classified into common law or case law. These are very important.

I do like what the teacher says I do the homework everyday. Reading the text and remembering the words. But I find that the new words is the ~~matter~~. It can influence us in studying the text. But except the new words, we know the other words. so we may know the main idea of the text is OK.

Last, I want to say ~~that~~ we must do ~~the~~ what the teacher says ~~then~~ we can learn much knowledge, and get a good result. The time is short. That's all.

Thank you Liu Lei. I'm 计老师 greatly encouraged everytime 你的论文作业 I read your paper and ~~homework~~ I must say you are doing much better than I am. I should learn from you and try all my best to be a good teacher and friend.

Study law

Law is very important for our social and we must studies carfully how to study law? What I study law knowledge in this class?

We must understand law's definition I know the law is a set of rules of conduct. But the definition of law depends on how we look at its purposes or functions. and it's means to impose responsibility

The purpose of law is to maintain and to enforce

The functions of law is to resolve d its duties social justice

This is about law's discussion.

I must be they be carefully of law. and be readly for law's practice and review.

Very good report! I like it and I am happy to see you have learned something in class. I am glad you are in the training group. You are very clever and diligent. Can you please help other students and tell them how to study English so well?

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Appendix IX

Core course materials, lesson plan and teacher diary entries for Unit Two

UNIT TWO

Lawyers

Text

Lawyers may be divided into several types. Trial lawyer is one type. Office-practice lawyer is another. Office practice is concerned with matters such as preparing documents, advising business, or settling estates. Many office-practice lawyers never participate in a lawsuit, but leave litigation to trial lawyers.[1] General practitioners, especially in small communities, may handle every matter that is brought to their offices. House counsels are another large group of attorneys. They are employed by business to assist in the internal operations of the business by preventing and solving legal problems.[2]

Lawyers play important roles in society. First of all, they are advisors. A lawyer's product is advice—advice on an infinite variety of subjects. Much of the advice is not on legal matters, but may involve business decisions or family affairs. Second, lawyers are advocates for their clients. Office lawyers negotiating a contract are advocates just as trial lawyers are; their advocacy is directed at other attorneys and their clients, rather than to judges and juries.[3] Third, Lawyers are negotiators of compromise. They seek to avoid the difficulties and expenses of litigation by finding a mutually satisfactory alternative.[4]

To be a good advisor, advocate and negotiator, lawyers must be cultured. They must be able to appreciate the historical relevance of our fundamental freedoms and the role of law in our society.[5] They must be keenly aware of the world in which they live, what is right about it and what is wrong, so that they can fulfil their role as instrument of change.[6] They must be compassionate and sensitive to human problems and weaknesses, because the practice of law is a very personal matter.

Lawyers must be courageous and willing to represent unpopular causes, because the right to counsel exists as a necessity.[7] They must be willing not only to defend such causes, but to defend the system that requires such representation.

Words & Expressions

lawyer ['lɔːjə]   *n.*   律师
   trial lawyer   诉讼律师

office-practice lawyer		咨询律师
concern [kən'səːn]	vt.	涉及,有关于
estate [is'teit]	n.	财产(权),地产,遗产
to settle estate		处理财产
participate (in) [paː'tisipeit]	vi.	参与,参加
litigation [ˌliti'geiʃən]	n.	诉讼
practitioner [præk'tiʃənə]	n.	个人开业者
general practitioner		普通开业律师
counsel ['kaunsəl]	n.	(法律)顾问
house counsel		企业法律顾问
attorney [ə'təːni]	n.	代理人,律师
internal [in'təːnl]	adj.	内部的
infinite ['infinit]	adj.	无限的
variety [və'raiəti]	n.	种类,种种,多样
a variety of		多种的
involve [in'vɔlv]	vt.	使卷入,牵涉
advocate ['ædvəkit]	n.	辩护人,拥护者,提倡者
advocacy ['ædvəkəsi]	n.	辩护,提倡,主张
client ['klaiənt]	n.	客户,(诉讼)委托人
negotiate [ni'gəuʃieit]	vt.	谈判
negotiator	n.	谈判者
direct [dai'rekt]	vt.	把……指向
rather than		而不是
jury ['dʒuəri]	n.	陪审团
compromise ['kɔmprəmaiz]	n.	妥协
alternative [ɔːl'təːnətiv]	n.	抉择,另一种选择,其他途径
cultured ['kʌltʃəd]	adj.	有文化修养的
appreciate [ə'priːʃieit]	vt.	领会
relevance ['relivəns]	n.	相关性,意义
fundamental [ˌfʌndə'mentl]	adj.	基本的
compassionate [kəm'pæʃənit]	adj.	热情的
sensitive ['sensitiv]	adj.	敏感的
courageous [kə'reidʒəs]	adj.	勇敢的
represent [ˌrepri'zent]	vt.	代表,代理
representation	n.	代表
unpopular ['ʌn'pɔpjulə]	adj.	不受欢迎的,不得人心的
cause [kɔːz]	n.	案由
right to counsel		(在刑事案中)请律师为自己辩护的权利

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Notes

1. Many office-practice lawyers never participate in a lawsuit, but leave litigation to trial lawyers.

   很多咨询律师从不参加诉讼，他们把诉讼留给诉讼律师。

2. They are employed by business to assist in the internal operations of the business by preventing and solving legal problems.

   他们受聘于企业，通过防止和解决法律问题来协助企业内部的运作。

3. ... their advocacy is directed at other attorneys and their clients, rather than to judges and juries.

   他们的辩护是针对其他律师及其委托人的，而不是指向法官和陪审团的。

4. They seek to avoid the difficulties and expenses of litigation by finding a mutually satisfactory alternative.

   他们通过寻求双方都满意的其他途径来避免诉讼的困难和花费。

5. They must be albe to appreciate the historical relevance of our fundamental freedoms and the role of law in our society.

   他们必须能领会我们的基本的自由权利的历史意义，以及法律在我们社会中的作用。

6. They must be keenly aware of the world in which they live, what is right about it and what is wrong, so that they can fulfil their role as instrument of change.

   他们必须对所处的世界有敏锐的意识，明白这世界对在何处错在何处，这样他们才能起到变化的工具这一作用。

7. Lawyers must be courageous and willing to represent unpopular causes, because the right to counsel exists as a necessity.

   律师必须勇于并且乐于代理不得人心的案由，因为请律师的权利是一种必须。

Word Study

1. to be concerned with 关于

   This lesson is concerned with the roles lawyers play in society.

2. to leave...to 把……留给

   She went looking for jobs and left her little baby to the care of her mother.

   They left nothing to chances when they prepared for the trial.

3. to involve 使卷入，涉及

   The scandal involves many high-ranking government officials.

   Judge Jackson can not take this case because some of his family members are involved in it.

4. to direct 使针对，使指向

Don't be upset. His criticism is not directed at you.

5. to be (keenly) aware of (敏锐地)意识到

When he starts talking, he is never aware of how time passes.

Are you aware of the changes in the weather?

Exercises

I. Tell whether each of the following statements is true or false:

1. House counsels usually do not participate in litigation.

2. General practitioners can also be trial lawyers.

3. Lawyers participate in litigation while attorneys only give advice.

4. Lawyers' advice is limited to legal matters.

5. Lawyers should encourage litigation because other alternatives are rarely satisfactory.

6. Defense lawyers in a criminal case defend the legal system as well as the accused.

7. Lawyers must hold fast to the belief that he is defending a perfect legal system.

8. Lawyers are first of all legal scholars. Knowledge about the actual world and about human nature is of little importance.

9. Lawyers must be cultured. This means that they must have higher education.

10. As an instrument of change, lawyers mustn't think that the world in which they live is perfect.

II. Answer the following questions:

1. How many types of lawyers are there in China? What are they?

2. (If you are a lawyer) What kind of work do you do?

(If you are a law student) What kind of lawyer do you want to be?

3. What roles do lawyers play in society? Which of them is the most important in your view?

4. Abraham Lincoln, one of the greatest American presidents, said that lawyers should be peace makers. What does he mean?

5. If a lawyer knows much about law but very little about anything else, will he be a good lawyer?

6. What are the qualities lawyers should have?

7. What does the author mean by saying that lawyers must be cultured?

8. Describe the work of a defence lawyer in a criminal case. Why should a lawyer be willing to defend a person alleged to have committed a crime?

Ⅲ. Fill in the following blanks with proper words:

1. If you want to make a business contract with a corporation, you'd better go to an _____ lawyer.

2. By negotiating for _____, lawyers seek to settle disputes and to _____ the difficulties and expenses of litigation.

3. An office lawyer's arguments are _____ at the opposing party _____ than to the judge and the jury.

4. House counsels and office practitioners are often employed not to resolve disputes but to _____ them.

5. Lawyers offer advice to their _____ on an infinite _____ of subjects.

6. To _____ their role as _____ of change, lawyers must be keenly _____ of the problems of society and must be _____ to human problems and weaknesses.

7. A defence lawyer in a criminal case must know that, though he is representing an _____ cause, such _____ is required by the system as a _____.

8. The general practitioner said this case _____ many complicated tax problems. It should be _____ to a specialist in tax law.

Ⅳ. Cloze

Lawyers play very important _____ (1) in modern society. They help settle _____ (2) and in this way they help maintain _____ (3) in a civilized society. Lawyers' product is _____ (4). They advise people not only on _____ (5) matters but also on many other subjects. Lawyers also _____ (6) their clients in legal disputes. In _____ (7) so, they must bear in _____ (8) that to resolve disputes through _____ (9) and compromise is in the best _____ (10) of their clients. Good honest _____ (11) always help their clients to _____ (12) the difficulties and expenses of litigation.

Some people think it is hard _____ (13) lawyers to be honest. But Abraham Lincoln, _____ (14) was a lawyer before he _____ (15) the president of the U. S. , believed that lawyers _____ (16) and must be honest. His advice _____ (17) law students is: be an honest _____ (18), and if you think you can _____ (19) be an honest lawyer, be honest without _____ (20) a lawyer!

Ⅴ. Translation

1. English to Chinese

The leading rule for the lawyer, as for the man of every calling(职业), is diligence. Leave nothing for tomorrow that can be done today. Never let your correspondence fall behind.

Discourage litigation. Persuade your neighbors to compromise whenever you can. Point out to them how the nominal(名义上的) winner is often a real loser—in

fees, and expenses, and waste of time. As a peace-maker the lawyer has a superior opportunity of being a good man. There will still be business enough. (Abraham Lincoln)

2. Chinese to English

1)诉讼律师代表委托人参与诉讼,咨询律师则准备文件,对企业提供咨询,处理财产。

2)律师不仅对法律事务提供咨询,而且也对其他事项提供咨询,如企业决策和家庭事务。

3)律师应该力求避免诉讼,以谈判求妥协。

4)咨询律师为委托人利益作出的辩护不是针对法官和陪审团的。

5)律师必须有修养,有同情心,并对人的问题敏感。

6)律师在为一项不得人心的案由提供辩护时,必须明白他同时也是在维护法制。

Lesson plan for unit two

UNIT TWO   LAWYERS

1. Concepts related to the legal profession
   - The Bar association, the Bar Exam, to <u>practise</u> law, the <u>practice</u> of law, client, lawsuit, court, litigation
   - Legal professions in the States:
     Lawyers, judge, procurator/attorney/public prosecutor
   - Roles of lawyers:
     Advocacy, counselling, drafting

2. Classification of lawyers
   - Trial lawyer & office-practice lawyer or Barrister & solicitor (UK)
   - Single practitioner & partner + associate

3. Group Discussion
   - I'd like /I want to be a lawyer because …
   - I hope I can be a judge because…
   - What constitutes a good lawyer?

4. Homework
   - V. Translation of the exercises in the core material
   - Read the texts of unit 1 and unit 2 (five times recommended)
   - Review the in-class note

Teacher diary entries for Unit Two

Days 14 and 15

Students' learning dairies were marked with detailed comments. 46 dairies were handed in. Some talked about their personal feeling about the programme, some about what they have learned in the course, some copied or recalled vocabulary and content-related sentence structures. On the whole, the diaries revealed that students were learning language and content knowledge with practical uses. In spite of their development in the English language proficiency, all the students showed high motivation under this mode of teaching.

One student's diary is very interesting. It seems to me that the diary is copied from somewhere else. After confirming with the student, I was told that it is an article she found from the internet. I am happy that the students started to find other resources for L2 content information. However, I wonder how much they can learn when they are copying these ideas with little paraphrasing. I also wonder why they do this.

The difficulty raised by the content integrated language instruction is also mentioned by some students in their dairies.

Day 24

The text of Lesson two was finished today. The teaching mode is fairly traditional. Paraphrasing and translation are the main pedagogical methods used to explain long and complex sentences.

Although most students have no background knowledge about lawyers, they have grasped the main language and content points introduced in class.

One student starts doing the duty report without a written draft in hand. Moreover, two students offered to do the duty report for next time voluntarily. From this change it can be seen that students are encouraged to speak in English if they are told the final purpose of language class is to use it for communication rather than for studying as a school subject. They are also better motivated when they have seen their peers have done the duty reports with satisfactory effect and positive feedback.

Day 26

Today, the lecture is mainly the revision of lesson 2. Language and legal points, as well as issue of references and plagiarism in academic writing are introduced in the

class.

A great progress in students' duty report is that they all started to talk about content information in English, and it did not seem frustrating at all!!

Appendix X

Course materials, lesson plan, PowerPoint and teacher diary entries
for Unit Three

UNIT THREE CONTRACTS

Contract Formation and Classification

Text

A contract is, first of all, an agreement. It is a manifestation of the mutual assent of the parties. The mutual assent, or the agreement, is typically reached when one party (the offeror) makes an offer to another party (the offeree) who accepts the offer.[1] Offer and acceptance are the acts by which the parties come to a "meeting of the minds".

When there is no meeting of the minds, there is no valid contract. To determine whether the minds have met, both offer and acceptance must be analyzed. The offeror may have had something in mind quite different from that of the offeree. Notwithstanding, the intention of the parties is determined not by what they think, but by their outward conduct, that is, by what each leads the other reasonably to believe.[2]

For an agreement to be a valid contract, the contracting parties must have legal capacity to enter into transactions. A party lacks capacity to contract if he is incapable of a full understanding of his rights and the nature, purpose and legal effects of the contract. Capacity-to-contract issues generally involve minors, mental incompetents, intoxicated persons and drug addicts.

A contract is also a bargain. This means that a contractual promise is never made as a gift and must be based on consideration. A contract without consideration is not binding and does not furnish a claim.

The doctrine of consideration requires that the promisor receive a benefit for the promise he makes and the promisee, while gaining the benefit of the promise, relinquish something or incur a detriment.[3] Consideration may exist in the form of performance or in a counterperformance.

Two well-established general principles are very helpful in determining whether consideration really exists. One is that what matters is the legal sufficiency of the consideration in contrast to its economic adequacy. Another is that past performance cannot be consideration for present promise.

The above discussion shows that a contract may be void or voidable if 1) one of the parties or both lack capacity; 2) the necessary meeting of the minds does not exist, or the consent of one of the parties was brought about by fraud, misrepresentation, or by duress, or if the agreement is founded on mistake; or 3) the contractual promise is not supported by consideration. Another important factor that may affect the validity of a contract is illegality. If a contract is made for an illegal purpose, or if its content is tainted by illegality, it does not exist in the eye of law. Closely related to illegality is the concept of unconscionability. [5] If a contract is made against public policy, it is often said to be unconscionable and therefore unenforceable.

The form of a contract may also affect its validity. Apart from special contracts (such as negotiable instruments and insurance contracts) which must be in writing, contracts which fall under the old English Statutes of Frauds also need a signed writing. This applies to, among others, 1) promises to pay the debts of another; 2) contracts concerning real property; 3) promises in contracts not to be performed within one year; and 4) contracts of sale exceeding $500. If contractual promises fall under the statutes of frauds, suit will lie only if there exists a writing by the party who resists performance which documents his contractual obligation. [6]

In addition to being valid, void, voidable, and unenforceable, contracts may be classified in various other ways. A contract is either bilateral (a promise for a counterpromise) or unilateral (a promise for performance). A contract may be referred to as executed (one fully performed by the contracting parties) or executory (one that is yet to be performed). A contract may also be express, implied-in-fact, or implied-in-law. An express contract occurs when the parties state their agreement orally or in writing. When the parties manifest their agreement by conduct rather than by words, it is said to be implied-in-fact. Implied-in-law contracts are quasi-contracts, because the obligation is created by law in absence of agreement, to prevent unjust enrichment.

The bulk of American contract law is judge-made case law. Special areas of contract law such as labor law and insurance law have been partially codified, but even in these areas the primary source of applicable legal principles are found in the written opinions of the courts.

The Uniform Commercial Code brings some contracts under its provisions. However, the scope of its applicability is limited. For our purpose it is sufficient to know that sales contracts are governed by the Code. Most other contracts (general business, real property, employment, construction and the like) still follow the common law rules as developed in cases.

Words & Expressions

manifestation [mænifes'teiʃən]   n.   表现，声明

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assent [əˈsent]   n.   *(handwritten annotation)*   同意，赞成

offer [ˈɔfə]   n.   要约

offeror [ˈɔfərə]   n.   要约者

offeree [ɔfəˈriː]   n.   受要约者

acceptance [əkˈseptəns]   n.   接受，(对要约的)承诺，(对票据的)承兑

meeting of the minds   合意

analyze [ˈænəlaiz]   vt.   分析

outward [ˈautwəd]   adj.   外部的

capacity [kəˈpæsiti]   n.   (法律上的)能力

minor [ˈmainə]   n.   未成年人

mental [ˈmentl]   adj.   思想(上)的，精神的

incompetent [inˈkɔmpitənt]   n.   无能力的人

intoxicate [inˈtɔksikeit]   vt.   使喝醉

addict [ˈædikt]   n.   入迷的人，有瘾的人

bargain [ˈbɑːgin]   n. & vi.   交易，买卖，讲价，讨价还价

consideration [kənsidəˈreiʃən]   n.   对价，约因

bind [baind]   vt.   约束

furnish [ˈfəːniʃ]   vt.   提供

to furnish a claim   提供权利主张(的依据)

promisee [ˌprɔmiˈsiː]   n.   接受允诺者

benefit [ˈbenifit]   n.   利益

incur [inˈkəː]   vt.   引起，遭受，受到

detriment [ˈdetrimənt]   n.   损害，不利

to incur a detriment (a loss, expenses...)   遭受损害(损失，花费)，吃亏

to exist in the form of   以……形式存在

promisor [ˈprɔmisə]   n.   允诺者

performance [pəˈfɔːməns]   n.   履行

counterperformance [kauntə-]   n.   对方的履行

adequacy [ˈædikwəsi]   n.   充足，足够

void [vɔid]   adj.   无效的

voidable [ˈvɔidəbl]   adj.   可以取消的

fraud [frɔːd]   n.   欺诈，欺骗

misrepresentation [misriprisenˈteiʃən]   n.   误述

duress [djuəˈres]   n.   胁迫

found [faund]   vt.   建立，为……打基础

to be founded on   基于

mistake [misˈteik]   n.   错误

validity [vəˈliditi]   n.   有效性

illegality [iliːˈgæliti]   n.   非法

taint [teint] *vt.*		污染,玷污,败坏
to be tainted by		受到……玷污
unconscionability [ʌnˌkɔnʃənəˈbiliti] *n.*		不公正
unconscionable [ʌnˈkɔnʃənəbl] *adj.*		不公正的
public policy		公共政策
negotiable [niˈgəuʃjəbl] *adj.*		(可)流通的
instrument [ˈinstrəmənt] *n.*		票据
insurance [inˈʃuərəns] *n.*		保险
to fall under		归属于
Statutes of Frauds		反诈骗法
suit will lie when...		当……时案件成立
document [ˈdɔkjumənt] *vt.*		用文件证明
bilateral [baiˈlætərəl] *adj.*		双边的,双务的
unilateral [ˈjuːniˈlætərəl] *adj.*		单边的,单务的
executed [ˈeksikjuːtid] *adj.*		已完成的,已实施的
executory [igˈzekjutəri] *adj.*		实施中的
express [iksˈpres] *adj.*		明示的
implied-in-fact		事实默示
implied-in-law		法律默示
manifest [ˈmænifest] *vt.*		表明
quasi-contract		准合同
unjust enrichment		不当得益
bulk [bʌlk] *n.*		大部分
applicability [əplikəˈbiliti] *n.*		适用性

Notes

1. The mutual assent, or the agreement, is typically reached when one party (the offeror) makes an offer to another party (the offeree) who accepts the offer.
   双方典型地达成赞同或协议,是在一方(要约者)向另一方(受要约者)发出要约,而后者又接受了该要约的时候。

2. Notwithstanding, the intention of the parties is determined not by what they think, but by their outward conduct; that is, by what each leads the other reasonably to believe.
   尽管如此,双方的意图不是取决于他们是怎么想的,而是取决于他们外在的行为,也就是各方使对方合理地相信了什么。

3. The doctrine of consideration requires that the promisor receive a benefit for the promise he makes and the promisee, while gaining the benefit of the promise, relinquish something or incur a detriment.

对价的原则要求允诺者因他所作的承诺而得利，而接受允诺者在从允诺中得利时，也有所舍弃或损失。

4. One is that what matters is the legal sufficiency of the consideration in contrast to its economic adequacy.

原则之一是要看对价的法律上的充分性而不是经济上的充足性。

5. Closely related to illegality is the concept of unconscionability.

与非法密切联系的一个概念是有失公平。

6. If contractual promises fall under these categories, suit will lie only if there exists a writing by the party who resists performance which documents his contractual obligation.

如果合同的承诺属于这几种，那么只有在有拒不履行的一方当事人的字据证明他的合同义务时，案件方能成立。

Word Study

1. to bind 有约束力，束缚

   A promise of a gift, even if it is written and signed, does not bind the promisor in the eye of law.

   The decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court are binding on state and federal courts alike.

2. to furnish a claim 提供权利主张（的依据）

   A breach of a valid contract furnishes a claim for the injured party.

   Not all wrongs furnish a legal claim.

3. to incur losses(expenses, detriment...) 遭受损失（花费，不利）

   Expenses incurred in the course of business activities will be reimbursed(偿还).

   Have you proof that you have incurred losses or detriment?

4. in contrast to 与……形成对照，与……相反

   In contrast to its thriving neighbor, this village is still a very quiet place.

   In contrast to tort claims, the law usually provides only compensatory(补偿性) damages for breach of contract.

5. to taint 污染，玷污，败坏

   Greed tainted his mind.

   His reputation is tainted by his connection with the drug dealers.

6. to be said to be 据说是，被说成是

   to be referred to as 据称是，被称为

   A contract between an adult and a minor is said to be voidable. The minor can avoid the contract during the minority and for a reasonable time after reaching majority.

   Darwin's theory of evolution (进化论) is referred to as one of the most exciting scien-

tific developments in the 19th century.

7. to fall under 被归入……类别，在……范围之内

Torts and contracts fall under the law of obligations（债法）in civil law systems.

This contract falls under our labor law provisions.

8. Suit will lie only when (if)... 只有在……情况下案件成立

Suit will lie only when the disputed right is protected by law.

Under such circumstances, suit will lie only if you have a power of attorney（委托书）.

Exercises

I. Tell whether each of the following statements is true or false:

1. A meeting of minds occurs when an offer is accepted by the offeree.

2. The intention of the parties is determined by what they thought at the time the disputed contract was formed.

3. A mental incompetent lacks capacity because he can not understand fully the legal consequences of a contract.

4. A promise of a gift made in writing is a binding contract.

5. Consideration may exist in the form of a promise for performance. It may also exist in the form of performance or counterperformance.

6. Voidable contracts are void contracts.

7. Contracts made for an illegal purpose are voidable contracts.

8. Contracts against public policy are unconscionable and unenforceable.

9. A unilateral contract is not based on consideration and therefore is not binding.

10. Quasi-contracts do not satisfy the requirement of mutual consent. But they are valid contracts in the eye of law.

11. A party may sue on contract even in the absence of agreement against a party who has unjustly enriched himself.

12. The UCC and other federal statutes now govern almost all contracts.

II. Answer the following questions:

1. Define a contract in as many ways as you can.

2. What is the element essential to the existence of an agreement?

3. In what way may contracts involving minors or incompetents affect their validity?

4. Why isn't a promise of a gift a contract?

5. Does American law provide that consideration be economically adequate?

6. What are the factors we must examine to determine the validity of a contract?

7. Is it possible for a valid contract to be unenforceable? If the answer is yes, under what circumstances may such a contract be unenforceable?

8. What are unilateral and bilateral contracts?

9. What are implied contracts? And quasi-contracts?

10. Name some types of contracts that are governed by statutory laws.

Ⅲ. Fill in the blanks with proper words:

1. If you accept something which is delivered to you by mistake, you have unjustly _____ yourself.

2. To allow government officials to gain benefits from doing what they are paid for is against _____ _____.

3. If you have _____ expenses in trying to save the life of an unconscious person, you may be allowed a repayment. The repayment can be explained by the theory of _____ which are also called _____ contracts.

4. If you offer to sell your used bike for $50, and your friend says he will buy it for $40, your friend has made a _____.

5. In _____ to most European countries, America is a common law country.

6. Suit will not _____ when the injury is only hypothetical(假设的) and has not in fact occurred.

7. The parties conclude a contract when one of them makes an _____ which is _____ by the other.

8. In determining the intention of the parties we must consider what each did and said and what each _____ the other _____ to believe.

9. If you drive your car to a filling station and say to the attendant "Fill it up", you have made a contract and your conduct constitutes(构成) an _____ promise to pay for the gas.

10. The factors that may affect the validity of a contract are 1) whether there is a _____ of the minds; 2) whether the parties have _____; 3) whether the contract is supported by _____ and 4) whether the contract is _____. Furthermore, if the contract is an oral agreement, we have to see whether it _____ under the Statutes of Frauds and therefore requires a _____ writing.

Ⅳ. Cloze

A writing is essential to the full enforceability of only some _____ (1) of contracts. The most familiar _____ (2) those included in the Statutes of _____ (3). Other statutes have expanded the requirement of _____ (4) in other instances, making it _____ (5) to put in writing, for example, agreements to submit _____ (6) to arbitration. Still, _____ (7) kinds of important transactions are entirely exempt _____ (8) the requirement of writing.

However, there may be reasons for _____ (9) transactions in written form in the absence of statutory _____ (10); to provide guidance to the parties and _____ (11) if

disputes should arise, or perhaps to signalize _____ (12) contract relations begin. When the _____ (13) do put their contract in written form, either _____ (14) or under a statutory requirement, they may encounter a number of _____ (15) concerning the interpretation of the writing.

V. Translation

1. English to Chinese

When the parties reduce their contract to writing, the so-called <u>parol evidence rule</u> (口头证据规则) applies. It provides that whenever the parties have established a writing which they regard as the final expression of their contractual intent, previous or simultaneous agreements may no longer be considered. The content of the contract in such cases then follows exclusively from the writing. A major difficulty in the application of the parol evidence rule lies in the determination of whether the parties really intended their writing to be the expression of their final agreement. The case law therefore employs a variety of tests and presumptions. The parol evidence rule naturally does not apply to subsequent agreements between the parties. These constitute modifications (更改) of the contract and, as a rule, require consideration like any other contract.

2. Chinese to English

1) 合同是双方当事人的协议。要使协议具有约束力，双方必须有合意。

2) 合同也是一种交易。这就意味着合同的义务必须有对价支撑。

3) 有些合同会因为有失公平或没有拒不履行的一方所签署的字据证明其合同义务而不可实施。

4) 出卖不动产的合同属于反诈骗法的适用范围，它必须是书面的。

5) 不当得利的一方对受损害的一方有义务，这义务不是产生于协议，而是由准合同理论确立的。

6) 虽然合同法的有些领域已被制成法典，美国合同法的大部分仍是判例法。

UNIT THREE
Contract Formation and Classification

1. Contract formation

   - What is contract?

   - The process or procedure of contracting

2. Validity of a contract

   - The validity of a contract <u>is decided by</u> ...

   - Meeting of the minds

     offer, acceptance, thinking/thought, conduct, lead sb. To believe

3. Legal capacity of the contracting parties

   - Be capable of sth./ doing sth.

   E.g. the contracting parties should be capable of participating in trasactions, and understanding their rights and the contract itself.

4. Existence of consideration
   A contract is /should <u>be based on</u> consideration.
   This is because the parties involved cannot <u>furnish a claim</u> if the contract <u>is</u> not <u>bound with</u> consideration.

5. Two basic principles of consideration

   - Legal sufficiency rather than economic adequacy

   - One performance to one contract

6. Legal points
   Form = the way in which a contract is formed/created/made
   Expressed form = contract made through words, either spoken or written
   Implied form = contract made by conduct (implied-in-fact) or law

(implied-in-law)

Classifications of law

- (according to validity) valid, void, voidable, unenforceable

- (according to performance) executed, i.e. contract has been fully performed

    executory, i.e. contract hasn't been fully performed

- (according to the promise) bilateral, i.e. a contract that requires mutual

    promises; unilateral, i.e. a contract that requires promise of one side.

7. Language points
apart from = in addition to, besides
E.g. Apart from the contract law, private law also includes ... ...

to fall under = to belong to
E.g. Lawyers that fall under house counsel are employed by big firms and companies.

in addition to, be referred to as, in absence of, either...or...

Appendix X-3

PowerPoint for Unit Three

Unit Three   Contract Formation and Classification

What to learn?

1. Reading, understanding, applying/using legal knowledge in the text

2. Legal words and language structures in the text

Background

1. 在美国，合同法主要是州法律，而不是联邦法律。合同法的主要渊源是普通法或判例法。

按照美国合同法的规定，一项合同成立的基本条件是有约因或对价(consideration)，即双方有交换的要求(requirement of exchange)，而且一般应有书面形式.如果某项约定对一方来说属于不当得利(unjust enrichment)，则该约定不应由法律来强制执行.

2. 合同的构成(contract formation)主要包括要约(offer)和承诺(acceptance). 如果一项合同的构成中包含有诈骗(fraud)，虚假陈述(misrepresentation),强迫(duress),显失公平(unconscionability)等因素,则气不应该受法律保护.

3. 在合同履行(contract performance)的问题上,对合同的解释(contract interpretation)具有特别重要的意义.当合同一方或双方违约(breach)时，美国的合同法倾向于赔偿金(damages)形势的补救方法(remedy).

Classification

Valid, void   &   voidable

Bilateral   &   unilateral

Executed   &   executory

Implied-in-law   & implied-in-fact

Review of Unit Three

Language point

1. Vocabulary

➢ Agreement/assent/deal
➢ Conduct/act/performance
➢ Offer, offeror, offeree & promise, promisor,
　　　　promisee
➢ Party, parties, contracting parties, the third party
➢ Legal effect

2. Expressions

➢ Reach (come to) an agreement/ mutual assent
➢ Make /accept an offer, make/accept a promise
➢ Be different from, be in contrast to, to contrast sharply with
➢ Be (in)capable of (doing) sth.
➢ Be determined/decided by /be based on…
➢ (to be)/(to exist) in the form of …

➢ To furnish a claim(主张 n. vt.)

Legal point

1. What is a Contract?

➢ a set of civil conducts/acts
➢ reached by mutual assent/agreement
➢ formed through offers and acceptances

2. Validity of a Contract

➢ *Meeting of the minds*(合意)
➢ Legal competence/*capacity* of the parties involved
➢ *Consideration* concerned with performance, rights, obligations, and claims, etc.

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Law case for group discussion in Unit Three

The Case:

Company A faxed an order to company B. The quality, quantity, delivering time and means were stated in the fax, and a quotation of price was required within 10 days. Company B, after receiving the fax from company A, faxed the price quotation and asked for a reply in 10 days. Company A accepted the price and faxed company B a request for a written contract.

Company B sent the goods in accordance with the terms required by company A. Company A accepted the good but failed to pay. The market price of the goods dropped afterwards. Company A then required company B to withdraw the goods, claiming the absence of a written contract. With strong disagreement, company B required the payment for the goods.

Discuss: 1. the legal characteristics of faxes between company A and company B

2. Is there the existence of a conformed sales contract? Explain the reasons.

Teacher diary entries for Unit Three

Day 28

On the way to the campus, I met a student and he told me that he had difficulty in reading the text. The new words, especially the long ones, are difficult to read. This implied that Chinese students lack the correct way of learning and using a language. They memorize the pronunciation of words by following the phonetics and reading after the teacher rather than linking the pronunciation and spelling.

Another issue is the meaning comprehension of the words. For example, in lesson two, 'office-practice lawyer' is translated in word study and note as 'advocacy lawyer'. The students then think that 'office-practice' carries exactly the same meaning as 'advocacy'. They rarely analyze the reason and problem in inter-language translation. To equip students with effective and correct learning strategy, language teachers should be sensitive to problems and drawbacks of language learning among students.

Considering the difficulty of the language in Lesson Three, 30 minutes in today's lecture is spent on content instruction and reinforcement by a content teacher.

Before the introduction of content background for unit 3, translation exercises in unit 2 are completed by mutual effort of students and language teacher. It is found that mutual work of students and teachers can be impressive and therefore effective. OHP and computer are jointly used in the process of joint work.

Tonight, for the illustration of lesson 3 tomorrow, a power point is made with respect to language and legal point. This is supposed to reduce the difficulty of language and content knowledge scattered in the text. Power point will be presented and discussed before the illustration of the text tomorrow.

Days 33, 34

Unit 3 (contract law) is difficult both in the content and the language. To reduce the anxiety and increase the confidence of the students, teaching method is re-modified.

New words and sentence structures are introduced and illustrated before the text explanation and discussion. When teaching the words and sentence structures, content knowledge is presented and integrated as background and sample sentences.

In the way, content and language knowledge is sorted and taught before the actual study of the text. Students will not be discouraged by loads of jargons and strange sentences containing complex content meanings. The effect of this lesson is very positive: students are confident since they have seen that the words are not really completely strange, and also they have experienced that these words and expressions introduced in class are sufficient to support their oral and written language product in related content information.

The lesson today indicates that traditional approach can and should be applied in CBI. Sometimes the traditional ways may carry more weight in classroom instruction.

Days 38

The feedback from the content teachers in the team is very positive. Unit three, contract formation and classification, is so far the most difficult lesson due to the abundance and complexity of vocabulary and legal content. However, both students and content teachers feel comfortable in listening and comprehending the text.

The comfort in class results from the modification of teaching approach. First of all, key words and expressions related to content comprehension are introduced before the general review of the vocabulary. Besides, main content knowledge is integrated along with the word study. For example, contract is *agreement/mutual assent*. The process of contract formation requires *offer* and *acceptance*. The validity of contract depends on/*is determined by* 'meeting of minds', *capacity* of the parties which involves *minors, mental incompetents, intoxicated persons,* and *drug addicts*.

The students expressed sense of achievement when they have mastered the content vocabulary and legal knowledge with the help of the teachers in class. However, they kept forgetting language and content knowledge, especially linguistic transference of content knowledge after class. Therefore, I would argue that teachers have completed their in-class instruction when students master language and content knowledge with reasonable comfort. However, students should be pushed to review what they have learned by doing a lot of homework. Meanwhile, the significance of practice should be stressed all the time so that good learning habits can be formed for future study.

Day 42

There is great improvement in students' duty report. One student started to introduce some learning strategies, which include reading, speaking, keeping using new words and expressions, etc. Meanwhile, she realized the importance of self-confidence in language study. Two other students have summarized content knowledge they have mastered with high linguistic accuracy.

Discussions are carried out again under the supervision of teachers in the team.

Students showed more confidence and active participation this time since they have become more familiar with the language and content knowledge concerned.

By the end of the class today, contracts are classified by the teacher without students' referring to the text in course book. The reason for doing this is, first of all, the knowledge is not well arranged in the text. Secondly, there are a lot of unnecessarily complicated new words in this part of the text. Finally, student will feel more comfortable and confident if they have learned the key words and content knowledge before facing the text.

Day 43

Classification of contracts is introduced without referring to the text in course book since the content is conveyed with complicated language in the text. The rest of the text is to be finished tomorrow. Students are given chance to express their idea on the significance of classifying contracts. They said that classification of contracts made it convenient to study contracts systematically. Some others said that by defining different kinds of contract, lawyers and judges can resolve contractual disputes more efficiently and accurately.

In their duty reports, students showed increased confidence in studying legal and linguistic knowledge in CBI classroom. However, more time and effort are needed for solid progress of content-language integrated study.

Homework for today is to compose a study report on contract classification or formation.

Day 44

Arrangements for next week have been discussed with students. On Monday, key words, expressions, and content knowledge on Civil Law will be presented through power point. A course meeting will be held on Tuesday in the form of small party. Students will have chance to present and exchange what they have gained from the training programme of CBI. Questionnaires will also be distributed. In addition, students who have persevered with this course will be rewarded in the party. The general summarization is to be conducted on Wednesday. Linguistic points, content knowledge, and learning strategies taught in this course will be summarized clearly and briefly through teacher-student, student-student interaction.

One thing worth mentioning is that more and more students have come back to the course since they know that there won't be a formal exam at the end of this programme. As explained by many returned students, they like this teaching mode and believe the course is very helpful. They just did not want their effort to be assessed by exams only.

Appendix XI

Core course materials and lesson plan for Unite Four

Course materials shared by teachers and students

UNIT FOUR   CIVIL LITIGATION

Introduction

Text

The law of procedure can be divided into criminal and civil. Civil procedure is the body
of rules by which the parties in civil litigation use the court to settle disputes.

Generally, the party bringing the lawsuit to the court is called the plaintiff, and the
party against whom the action is brought is called the defendant. On appeal, the appealing
party is usually referred to as appellant, and the winning party at trial is called the
appellee.

In most states and in the federal courts, all persons may join in one lawsuit as plain-
tiffs if the causes of action arise out of the same transaction or series of transactions and
involve common questions of law or fact. [1] In addition, the plaintiff may join as defendants
all persons who are necessary to a complete determination or settlement of the questions. [2]
If a defendant alleges that a complete determination of a controversy cannot be made with-
out other parties, that defendant may bring in new third parties as third-party defen-
dants. [3] The procedure is usually followed when someone is liable to a defendant who, in
turn, is liable to the plaintiff.

A distinctive element of the Anglo-American judicial procedure is the adversary
system. Within this system, the responsibility for beginning suit, for shaping the issues,
and for producing evidence rests almost entirely upon the parties to the controversy. [4] The
court takes almost no active part. It does not do its own investigating. It rarely even asks
a question. Most often it is only responsible for guiding the proceeding according to certain
procedural rules and for making decisions on questions of law that arise.

The reasons for the prevalence of the adversary system are manifold. First, it is be-
lieved that a truer decision will be reached as a result of a contest directed by interested
parties. [5] Second, since the parties have a direct interest in the resolution of the dispute,
they should bear the burden of the time and energy required. Third, setting up sides re-
duces the determination of the suit to some yes-or-no questions, which are easier for an

unbiased judge.[6] Fourth, the human instinct to do battle is better satisfied by a contest that is very much in the hands of the parties.

Critics of the adversary system point out that the adversary system tends to reduce litigation to a game, in which the outcome will depend more on the skill of the lawyers than on the true merits of the case.[7] In recent years, there has been a trend toward increasing the active role of the court. But the system remains, and it is still true that in the United States, the control over almost all phases of the judicial process continues to reside in the parties.

Words & Expressions

action ['ækʃən] n.	诉讼
to bring an action/lawsuit against sb.	向某人提起诉讼，到法院告某人
defendant [di'fendənt] n.	被告
appellant [ə'pelənt] n.	上诉人
appellee [ˌæpe'liː] n.	被上诉人
cause of action	案由
transaction [træn'zækʃən] n.	交易
to join sb. as plaintiff/defendant	与某人共同起诉（把某人作为第三人被告合并起诉）
to make a complete determination of a controversy	彻底解决争端
to be liable	负有责任
to rest on	依靠，依赖
adversary ['ædvəsəri] n.	敌手，对手
adversary system	抗辩制
produce [prə'djuːs] vt.	拿出，出示
evidence ['evidəns] n.	证据
prevalence ['prevələns] n.	流行，盛行
manifold ['mænifəuld] adj.	多种多样的
as a result of	作为……的结果
contest ['kɔntest] n.	比赛
interested ['intristid] adj.	有利害关系的
interested parties	利害关系人
resolution [ˌrezə'ljuːʃən] n.	解决
to bear the burden of	承担
to reduce...to	把……降为；把……归纳为
unbiased ['ʌn'baiəst] adj.	无偏见的
satisfy ['sætisfai] vt.	满足，符合

critic ['kritik]	n.	批评者
merit ['merit]	n.	事实真相,是非曲直
phase [feiz]	n.	阶段
reside in [ri'zaid]	vi.	属于,归于

Notes

1. ...all persons may join in one lawsuit as plaintiffs if the causes of action arise out of the same transaction or series of transactions and involve common questions of law or fact.

   如果案由出自同一桩交易或者同类交易并且涉及事实或法律问题又相同,原告可以合并起诉。

2. In addition, the plaintiff may join as defendants all persons who are necessary to a complete determination or settlement of the questions.

   除此之外,原告可以把所有对彻底解决或处理争议必不可少的人作为被告合并起诉。

3. If a defendant alleges that a complete determination of a controversy cannot be made without other parties, that defendant may bring in new third parties as third-party defendants.

   如果被告声称彻底解决争议还必须有其他当事人,他可以将其他人作为第三人被告纳入该案。

4. Within this system, the responsibility for beginning suit, for shaping the issues, and for producing evidence rests almost entirely upon the parties to the controversy.

   在抗辩制中,提起诉讼,界定争议以及出示证据都几乎完全是争议当事人的责任。

5. First, it is believed that a truer decision will be reached as a result of a contest directed by interested parties.

   首先,人们认为由有利害关系的当事人为主导的较量可以导致更符合实际情况的决定。

6. Third, setting up sides reduces the determination of the suit to some yes-or-no questions, which are easier for an unbiased judge.

   第三,树立对立面使案件的处决变成了几道是非题,使不具偏见的法官较容易处理。

7. Critics of the adversary system point out that the adversary system tends to reduce litigation to a game, in which the outcome will depend more on the skill of the lawyers than on the true merits of the case.

   对抗辩制持批评态度的人指出,抗辩制把诉讼变为一场比赛,其结果更多地取决于律师的技巧,而不是案子本身的是非曲直。

Word Study

1. to join 合并

   It is a good idea to join Tom's employer as defendant, because Tom may not be able to pay the damages.

   The victims of the accident joined in an action against the bus company.

2. to be liable to sb. for sth. 因某事对某人负有责任

   In this case the employer is also liable for the accident caused by his employee.

   All the persons who signed this note(期票)are liable.

3. to rest on 依靠

   Our hope rests on you.

   The legal counsel is only an advisor. The final decision rests on the board of directors (董事会).

4. to reduce...to 把……降为,把……归纳为

   After months of negotiation they finally reduced their agreement to a written contract.

   The battle was reduced to a fist fight after all the weapons became useless.

5. to reside in/with 属于

   The highest judicial authority resides in the Supreme Court.

   With which institution does the power to legislate reside in your country?

Exercises

I. Tell whether each of the following statements is true or false:

1. The plaintiff may join all persons as defendants who he thinks are necessary for a complete determination of the dispute.

2. A defendant can not bring in a new party.

3. Under the adversary system the judge takes an active part in the resolution of disputes.

4. The judge also introduces his own witnesses.

5. The judge is responsible for guiding the proceedings and ruling on questions of law.

6. The adversary system helps to reduce the cost of litigation.

7. The adversary system puts the control of the judicial process in the hands of the parties.

8. In recent years, there has been a trend toward strengthening the adversary system

in America.

9. By setting up sides and making litigation a contest between interested parties, the adversary system tends to reduce litigation to a game.

10. Critics of the adversary system think that the role of the judge should be greater.

I . Answer the following questions:

1. What is civil procedure?
2. What is a plaintiff?
3. What is a defendant?
4. What is an appellant?
5. What is an appellee?
6. Can more than one person be joined in a lawsuit as plaintiffs? If so, under what circumstances?
7. Can more than one person be joined in a lawsuit as defendants? If so, under what circumstances?
8. What is the adversary system?
9. What is the role of the judge in litigation under the adversary system?
10. What are the advantages of the adversary system?
11. What are its weaknesses?

II . Fill in the following blanks with proper words:

1. Civil procedure is the _____ of rules guiding the procedure of civil litigation.
2. The party who brings the lawsuit to court is the _____.
3. The party who appeals from the decision of the lower court is generally referred to as the _____.
4. When the causes of action _____ out of the same transactions and _____ common questions of law or fact, all persons may _____ in one lawsuit as plaintiffs.
5. If a defendant alleges that another party is _____ to him with respect to the same dispute, he may bring in that party as a _____ defendant.
6. The adversary system is a _____ element of the Anglo-American judicial procedure. It reduces the process of litigation to a contest between _____ parties, who have control over almost all _____ of litigation.
7. In a court operated under the adversary system, the responsibility for _____ suit, for _____ the issues and for _____ evidence rests almost entirely _____ the parties, who also _____ the burden of the time and expenses required.
8. Since the determination of the dispute is _____ to some yes-or-no questions, the job of the judge is made _____.
9. _____ of the adversary system think that the skill of the lawyers should not be made decisive to the outcome of litigation.

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10. Justice requires that the outcome of a case depend on the _____ of the case.

IV. Cloze

The adversary system is a distinctive element of _____ (1) in American courts. Within this system, the parties _____ (2) the controversy play a leading role _____ (3) the litigation process. The judge guides the proceeding _____ (4) to rules of procedure, and makes decisions _____ (5) questions of law. But he takes no active _____ (6) in the process.

Advocates _____ (7) the adversary system thinks that it has many advantages. First, it tends to result _____ (8) truer decisions. Second, it places the main _____ (9) of litigation on the parties and saves _____ (10) of the time, energy and money for the court. Third, it makes the job of the _____ (11) easier, since the determination of the suit is _____ (12) to yes-or-no questions.

But the only test of a good system of procedure is: Does it tend _____ (13) the just and efficient determination of legal controversies? Measured _____ (14) this standard, the adversary system seems unsatisfactory. As many critics have _____ (15) out, the adversary system often means that control _____ (16) the litigation process will very much be in the _____ (17) of the parties, and victory will depend on the ____ (18) of the lawyers rather _____ (19) on the justice or true _____ (20) of the cause.

V. Translation

1. English to Chinese

The question of <u>standing to sue</u>(诉讼主体资格) is whether the litigant is entitled to have the court decide the dispute. The issue arises because of the limited role of courts in our society.

For a court to hear a case, the plaintiff must allege that there is a controversy between him and the defendant, and that he has a personal interest in the outcome of the controversy. He must also allege that this personal interest is based on the threatened or actual injury to him resulting from the defendant's action.

Without the requirement of "standing", courts will be called upon to decide abstract questions of wide public significance. Such questions are best resolved by the political process.

2. Chinese to English

1)如果你对某人提起诉讼,你就是原告。如果某人对你提起诉讼,你就是被告。

2)既然案由是出自同一桩交易,我们可以把所有的受害人作为原告合并在一个案子中。

3)被告声称史密斯对他负有责任,便把史密斯作为第三人被告带入该案。

4)在美国法院,法官并不积极参于诉讼。法官根据程序法指导案子的进程并决定法律问题。

Appendix XI-2
Lesson plan for Unit Four

UNIT FOUR
CIVIL LITIGATION

1. About Civil Rights

   美国的民权法(civil rights law) 是 20 世纪中期以黑人为主要力量的民权

   运动的产物。 二战以后美国军队取消了种族隔离制度。

   1955 年 12 月 5 日， 阿拉巴马州的一位黑人妇女因为在公共汽车上拒绝

   移到黑人座位而被捕，黑人群众为此举行抗议活动。

   1963 年 8 月，黑人领袖马丁.路德.金博士领导了抗议种族歧视的'向首都

   华盛顿大进军'，使民权运动达到了高潮。

   1964 年， 美国国会通过民权法案 (the Civil Rights Act)

   虽然美国是一个宣扬自由和平等的国家，但是种族歧视想象仍然存在。

   例如，1991 年 3 月 3 日加利福尼亚洛杉矶市数名白人警察殴打一位黑人

   青年的案件最终就是以违反民权法律的名义进行的审判。

2. About Civil Litigation

   美国的民事诉讼具有两个显著特点：对抗或抗辩制(adversary system) 和

   陪审制 (jury system)。 有人曾把抗辩制诉讼比喻为一场球赛，双方律师

   及其当事人和证人为参赛队员，而法官则是裁判，来保证比赛按规则进

   行并确定和宣布比赛结果。

   陪审制是由一定数量（一般为 12 名）的普通公民组成陪审团参与审判的

制度。陪审员必须经一定程序挑选。陪审团的职责是依据他们的常识来对案件中的事实作出判断，而有关法律问题则是由法官作出裁定。因此，陪审制是公民参与审判程序的一种方式。

3. Language points
   Procedural law   vs.   substantive law
   Civil litigation   vs.   criminal litigation
   Litigation   vs.   appealing
   Plaintiff   vs.   defendant
   Appellant   vs.   appellee
   Judge, arbitration, resolution, result, determination
   Evidence, witness, testimony, hearing

4. Useful phrases
   to join sb. as plaintiff = to make sb, involved in the suit as plaintiff
   to produce evidence
   to hold a hearing
   as a result of, as a result, to result in, to result from

Appendix XII

Sample supplementary reading material

CASES FOR SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Marbury v. Madison

5 U.S. (1 Cranch) 137, 2 L.Ed. 60 (1803)

[The election of 1800 brought a solid victory to Jefferson and his Republican Party, but it also resulted in a tie (选票相等) for President between Jefferson and Burr. The decision of which of the two should be President was left to the old Federalist Congress. The debate went on for several months and gave the Federalists the opportunity to strengthen their position before leaving office.

John Marshall was President Adams' Secretary of State. On February 4, 1801, Marshall took office as Chief Justice of the United States while continuing to serve as Secretary of State. On February 13, the Federalist-dominated Congress enacted a Circuit Court Act creating several new judgeships. On February 17, the electoral tie was decided in favor of Jefferson and his inauguration (就职仪式) was scheduled for March 4. On February 27, Congress enacted a bill creating 42 Justices of the Peace within the District of Columbia. After the Senate confirmation, Adams signed the commissions (委任状) of all the judges and JP's and gave them to Marshall for delivery to the recipients. Marshall's brother James was given the job of delivery but did not complete the job by midnight of the 3rd. When Jefferson took over the presidency, he found several of the commissions in the Secretary of State's office. He forbade their delivery.

Marbury was one of the JP's whose commission was undelivered. He sued James Madision, who was now Jefferson's Secretary of State, in the Supreme Court for a writ of mandamus (强制令) ordering that the commission be delivered. His suit was not filed, however, until December of 1801. The Court could not decide on the case until February 1803 due to circumstances.

Meanwhile, the new Republican Congress attacked the Federalist-dominated judiciary in more direct ways. First, the Circuit Court Act was repealed. Second, a federal judge named Pickering was impeached and removed from office by the Senate because of alcoholism and a mild bit of insanity. After that, the House of Representatives impeached Justice Samuel Chase, an outspoken Federalist, who was later acquitted at the trial in the Senate.

When the Court turned in 1803 to the Marbury case, the stage was set for a power struggle between Federalists and Republicans, between Marshall and Jefferson, and be-

tween the judiciary and other branches of government.

Of course the federalist-dominated court wanted to say that President Jefferson should have delivered the commissions to those who had been appointed to office under the previous administration. But the court also feared that asserting jurisdiction over the case would invite a snub (谴责) from the Jefferson Administration. So the Court undertook to interpret the constitutional provision with regard to its original jurisdiction, which it found did not cover the case. Thus, in declining to exercise a power withheld from it by the Constitution, the Supreme Court not only successfully evaded a political confrontation but also asserted a far more important power: the power of judicial review]

Opinion of the Court (Chief Justice Marshall).

... The first object of inquiry is, Has the applicant a right to the commission he demands?

Mr. Marbury, since his commission was signed by the President and sealed by the Secretary of State, was appointed. ... The appointment was not revocable. To withhold his commission, therefore, is an act deemed by the court not warranted by law, but violative of a vested legal right.

This brings us to the second inquiry, which is, If he has a right, and that right has been violated, do the laws of this country afford him a remedy?

The very essence of civil liberty certainly consists in the right of every individual to claim the protection of the laws, whenever he receives an injury. One of the first duties of government is to afford that protection. The government of the United States has been emphatically termed a government of laws, and not of men. It will certainly cease to deserve this high appellation (称号), if the laws furnish no remedy for the violation of a vested legal right...

It remains to be inquired whether, He is entitled to the remedy for which he applies. This depends on 1st, The nature of the remedy applied for; and, 2d, The power of this court.

(Chief Justice John Marshall went on to say that this was not a case in which the executive could exercise his power of discretion. It was a case in which a head of a department was directed by law to do a certain act affecting the absolute rights of individuals. So, the courts in the US could not be excused from the duty of giving judgment.)

... This ... is a plain case for mandamus, either to deliver the commission, or a copy of it from the record; and it only remains to be inquired,

Whether it can issue from this court.

The act to establish the judicial courts of the United States authorizes the Supreme Court "to issue writs of mandamus in cases warranted by the principles and usages of law to ... persons holding office under the authority of the United States." The secretary of state, being a person holding an office under the authority of the United States, is precisely within the letter of the description, and if this court is not authorized to issue a writ of mandamus to such an officer, it must be because the law is unconstitutional, and therefore

absolutely incapable of conferring the authority...

The constitution vests the whole judicial power of the United States in one Supreme Court, and such inferior courts as congress shall, from time to time, ordain and establish. This power is expressly extended to all cases arising under the laws of the United States; and consequently, in some form, may be exercised over the present case; because the right claimed is given by a law of the United States.

In the distribution of this power it is declared that "the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction in all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party. In all other cases, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction." It has been insisted, at the bar, that as the original grant of jurisdiction to the supreme and inferior courts is general..., the power remains to the legislature to assign original jurisdiction to that court in other cases... provided those cases belong to the judicial power of the United States.

... If congress remains at liberty to give this court appellate jurisdiction, where the constitution has declared their jurisdiction shall be original; and original jurisdiction where the constitution has declared it shall be appellate; the distribution of jurisdiction, made in the constitution, is form without substance.

... The question, whether an act, repugnant (相反的) to the constitution, can become the law of the land, is a question deeply interesting to the United States; ... (To decide it), it is necessary to recognize certain principles, supposed to have been long and well established.

... the people have an original right to establish, for their future government, such principles, as, in their opinion, shall most conduce to their own happiness... The exercise of this original right is a very great exertion; nor can it, nor ought it, to be frequently repeated. The principles, so established, are deemed fundamental... They are designed to be permanent.

This original and supreme will organizes the government, and assigns to different departments their respective powers. It may either stop here, or establish certain limits not to be transcended (超越) by those departments.

The government of the United States is of the latter description. The powers of the legislature are defined and limited; and that those limits may not be mistaken, or forgotten, the constitution is written. To what purpose are powers limited, and to what purpose is that limitation committed to writing, if these limits may, at any time, be passed by those intended to be restrained?

... The constitution is either a superior paramount law, unchangeable by ordinary means, or it is on a level with ordinary legislative acts, ... and is alterable when the legislature shall please to alter it.

If the former part of the alternative be true, then a legislative act contrary to the constitution is not law; if the latter part be true, then written constitutions are absurd

attempts, on the part of the people, to limit a power in its own nature illimitable. Certainly all those who have framed written constitutions contemplated them as forming the fundamental and paramount law of the nation, and consequently, the theory of every such government must be, that an act of the legislature, repugnant to the constitution, is void.

... If an act of the legislature, repugnant to the constitution, is void, does it... bind the courts, and oblige them to give it effect?... This is an absurdity too gross to be insisted on. ...

It is emphatically the province and the duty of the judicial department to say what the law is. Those who apply the rule to particular cases, must interpret that rule. If two laws conflict with each other, the courts must decide on the operation of each....

If the courts are to regard the constitution, and the constitution is superior to any ordinary act of the legislature, the constitution, and not such ordinary act, must govern the case to which they both apply...

Thus,... a law repugnant to the constitution is void; and courts, as well as other departments, are bound by that instrument.

Questions:
1. What is the claim of Marbury? On what does he base his claim?
2. Does Chief Justice John Marshall think that Marbury is entitled to have relief? What form will the relief take?
3. What is Marshall's answer to the question whether a writ of mandamus should issue from the Supreme Court? What are the grounds for this answer?
4. What is the language in this opinion that establishes the doctrine of judicial review?

Appendix XIII

End - of - Programme Questionnaire

Name _____ Sex _____ Age _____ Date _____

Instruction: There are 10 questions in total in this questionnaire. Most of the questions are to be answered with Yes or No. Please fill in the blanks and **circle** the letters of your answers. Your honest answers will be greatly appreciated.

Confidentiality: Your real name is preferable only for the sake of return rate of this questionnaire. However, you can use a pseudonym or nickname if you feel more comfortable with it.

1. Do you think the programme has improved your English language abilities in general?
   A. Yes.   B. No.   C. Not sure.

2. Do you think the programme has improved your legal English proficiency?
   A. Yes.   B. No.   C. Not sure.

3. Do you think the programme has encouraged you to invest more in your study of law?
   A. Yes.   B. No.   C. Not sure.

4. Did the programme increase your participation in language classroom activities compared with general English courses?
   A. Yes.   B. No.   C. Not sure.

5. What attracted you most in the programme? Circle ONE only.
   A. Language items, e.g. vocabulary, grammar, etc.
   B. Classroom activities, e.g. discussion, group work, student presentations, etc.
   C. Materials uses in the programme, e.g. texts, legal documents, etc.
   D. Homework.
   E. Other. Please specify.

6. Would you like to take similar courses in the future? Why?
   A. Yes, because_____
   _____

B. No, because_____

_____.

7. Please specify some language learning strategies you have used and/or acquired through the programme.

8. Please specify some other strategies you have acquired in the programme.

9. Please give your comments on the programme.

10. Thank you! Good luck for your future studies in law and English!

Appendix XIV-1

CBI programme report

Gong Yi

Criminal law department

Wuhan Law College

The two-month CBI course has officially finished and I can now take a deep breath. I have been extremely busy during the last two months but all the efforts have paid off:

1. The students have made a great progress.

Most students at WLC do not have high marks in the entrance exams for senior secondary education. They are normally not interested in study. In the CBI classes, however, they all studied really hard and tried to overcome difficulties and get rid of their own bad habits including the laziness. I think the students' behaviour echoes the teachers' strong influence. During the CBI programme, we three teachers worked as a team and showed the highest respect for the course and our students. That is one of the major reasons for the CBI students' outstanding performance in the CBI and other regular subject courses during the programme. The teachers made the students feel special.

It is also in this CBI programmes that the students are satisfied with their language study. Most students have realized the significance of English but did not make enough effort to learn the language. The programme provided an opportunity for students to learn some useful language. They enjoyed the course and forced themselves to learn even when they felt tired.

Some of the legal knowledge had been introduced before the CBI programme.

However, it was either forgotten or incorrectly understood by the students. This programme reinforced the legal knowledge and deepened students' understanding of some fundamental theories in law. Thus it helped students not only to know what but also how and why.

2. The teachers' received a sense of self-development

I realized the strength of team spirit after working as a member of the CBI teaching team. The success of this programme is based on the close co-operation of the three CBI teachers. There was high respect between the language and the law teachers in the programme. The co-operation was harmonious due to the mutual understanding and support. We exchange comments on each CBI course, modify teaching procedures, analyze students' development and summarize experiences and lessons for the teachers to improve the effectiveness of each CBI class.

I have never realized that cooperation between faculties can be so powerful. There was scarcely any inter-disciplinary cooperation in WLC before the CBI programme especially between the English and the law departments. Everyone kept their teaching method and techniques secret because of the competition for promotion, which related closely to the pay rate. Without adequate communication, teachers from different department hardly had any contact. Sometimes there was even hostility due to competition for promotion.

Frequent communication helps to harmonize our team teaching. There used to be ignorance and hostility between the departments due to competition for promotions. The CBI programme could not have been so successful without close coordination between the language and law teachers. During the CBI programme, the three teachers from the language and the law departments worked as a team. We exchanged teaching experiences and shared the result of classroom observation, assessment and analysis of students' development. Teaching methods and procedures

were frequently modified as group decision for effective instruction. The spirit of team-teaching should be introduced to the college as a whole.

Another lesson I have learned from the programme is that we, as teachers, should never under-estimate our students. One will know better about how the students feel when one is in the same situation as the students'. I attended CBI classes as a language learner and started to understand my students better. I was moved by the enormous efforts the students made during the CBI programme. Most of them attended each CBI class, reviewed and previewed each unit and finished homework on time. The workload is even heavier than that of students at the senior secondary school. Students were proud of themselves and found high self-esteem when they finished the course.

In the programme, I have witnessed how intelligent and diligent my students were. They did not appear so because they were not given opportunities or encouraged to present themselves. It was the teachers who were to blame for not giving their students enough chance to show how much and how well they could learn.

Appendix XIV-2

CBI programme report

Wang Hui

Civil law department

Wuhan Law College

The two-month CBI course has now come to an end. I am really impressed with my students and myself. I feel like that I have never worked so hard and never felt such a great sense of achievement.

During the CBI programme, I needed to teach my own course and attend the CBI course every day. No one can say it is not tiring, but I really enjoyed it in spite of the heavy workload. However, I believe the longer I am in the course, the less heavy the workload. I have refreshed my English language skills and learned legal English vocabulary and features of an English document. The programme has also provided me an opportunity to know how legal English is taught. I believe this new approach is challenging to both teachers and students at the beginning stage. However, we will get used to it and appreciate it with the passage of the time. This may be the kind of challenge that we all and always need.

It was not very common for teachers from the same department to discuss problems in teaching because of competition for promotion. Inter-departmental communication was even rarer. Sometimes there was even implicit hostility between teachers from different departments since they didn't have to maintain a good personal or working relationship. I developed a great sense of team spirit in the programme and benefitted greatly from team-teaching with a law lecturer and a language teacher.

This programme also provided an opportunity for me to realise the power of motivation to students. Unlike other students, the programme students appreciate their opportunities of any form of classroom activities including individual presentations and group discussions. They engaged in various content-related tasks without being afraid of making mistakes. Effort invested by the CBI teachers also inspired the students. They felt highly respected and concerned in the programme. There was pressure in CBI classes, especially when the students were asked to lead the discussions. However, it was an enjoyable and valuable experience. The students showed great interest in the results of the CBI programme.

I have also witnessed students' cognitive development during these two months. Programme students participated in content classes with greater confidence and enthusiasm. With more accurate answers and better performance, these students enjoyed more positive feedback from the teachers. Negative feedback, on the other hand, was considered by them as guidance to the in-depth study of the related content issues. As commented by another content teacher, programme students' active engagement in classroom activities and their right attitudes to teachers' feedback helped to establish a constructive learning environment.

A long term CBI programme may be even more tiring and challenging. However, I am willing to make more effort to learn and teach if I am given the opportunity. I shall look forward to it.

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